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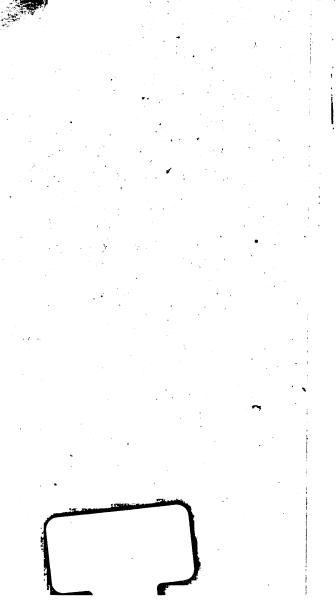
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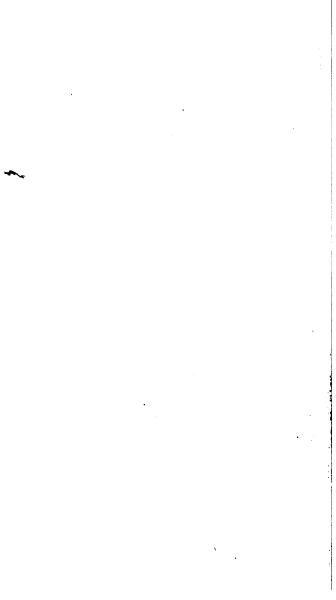
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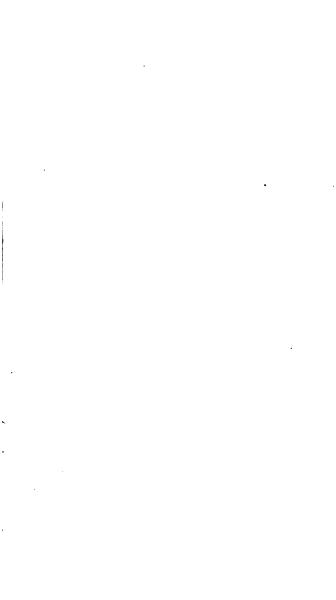
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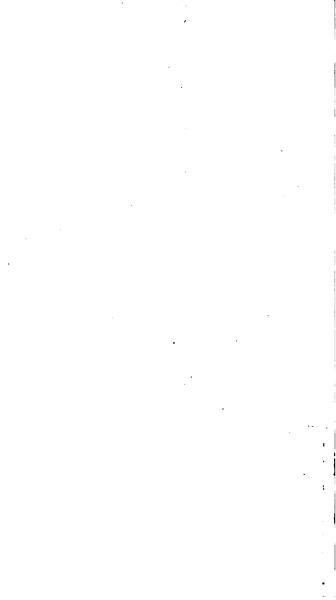












Hyminis to his nephew Hamilton Wellis Hingham









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ANGUENT HISTORY

OF THE

EGYPTIANS, CARTHAGINIANS, ASSYRIANS, BARYLONIANS. MEDES AND PERSIANS, MACEDONIANS AND GRECIANS

By M. ROLLIN,

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CONTENTS

OF

THE EIGHTH VOLUME.

THE HISTORY OF ALEXANDER'S SUCCESSORS CONTINUED.

ARTICLE III.

Abridgment of the history of the kings of Cappadosia

BOOK XXI.	
THE HISTORY OF SYRACUSE.	
ARTICLE I.	
Seet. f. Hiero II. chosen captain-general by the Syracusans, and soon after appointed king	2 0
ARTICLE II.	
Sect. I. Hieronymus, grandson of Hiero, succeeds him. He is killed in a conspiracy	35 46

воок ххи.

ARTICLE III.

THE HISTORY OF PONTUS.

Sect. II. Second and third war with Mithridates. Tragical
end of his sisters and wives
loses two battles
overthrows him in several battles
BOOK XXIII.
THE HISTORY OF EGYPT.
Sect. I. Ptolemsus Auletes had been placed on the throne of Egypt in the room of Alexander
THE CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.
Advertisement
GENERAL INDEX
OF THE MATTERS CONTAINED IN THE ANCIENT HISTORY.

BOOK XX. CONTINUED.

THE HISTORY

OF

ALEXANDER'S SUCCESSORS

CONTINUED.

SECT. VI. CONTINUED.

THIS defeat must in one sense have been more affecting to them than that of the battle of Canna, because they had less reason to expect it. When Hannibal was victorious at Cannæ. Rome was in a state of humiliation. She had already lost many battles, and had no thought but of defending herself, and repulsing the enemy from her territory. At this time Rome was triumphant, respected and dreaded by all nations: she was mistress of the most potent kingdoms of Europe, Asia, and Africa, lately victorious over one of the most formidable enemies she ever had; yet, in the most exalted height of her greatness, she saw her glory suddenly fall to the ground, in an attack upon a people, formed out of the assemblage of the eastern nations, whose valour she despised, and whom she reckoned already amongst her conquesta. So complete a victory showed those haughty conquerors of the world a rival, in a remote people, capable of making head against and disputing the empire of the universe with them; and not only of setting bounds to their ambitious projects, but of making them tremble for their own safety. It showed that the Romans might be overthrown in a pitched battle, and fighting with all their forces; that that power, which, till then, like the inundation of a mighty sea, had overflowed all the countries in its way, might at length receive bounds. and be restrained for the future within them.

The check received by Crassus from the Parthians was a blot on the Roman name, which the victories gained over them some time after by Ventidius were not capable of effacing. The standards of the vanquished legions were always shown by them as sights. The prisoners takes 2.

a Mileme Crami conjuge Barbara Turpis maritus vizit? Et hostium

that fatal day were kept there in captivity, and the Romans, citizens or allies, contracted ignominious marriages to the shame of Rome, as Horace, emphatically describes it, and grew old, in tranquillity, upon the lands and under the standards of Barbarians. It was not till 30 years after, in the reign of Augustus, that the king of the Parthians, without being compelled to it by arms, consented to restore their standards and prisoners to the Romans, which was looked upon by Augustus and the whole empire as a most glorious triumph; so much were the Romans humbled by the remembrance of that defeat, and so much did they believe it incumbent on them to efface it, if possible, to the least trace. For themselves they never could forget it. Casar was upon the point of setting out against the Parthians, to avenge the affront which Rome had received from them, when he was killed. Anthony formed the same design, which turned to The Romans, from that time, always regarded the war with the Parthians as the most important of their wars. It was the object of the application of their most warlike emperors, Trajan, Septimus Severus, &co. The surname of Pathicus was the title of which they were fondest, and which most sensily flattered their ambition. If the Romans sometimes passed the Euphrates to extend their conquests beyond it, the Parthians in their turn did the same, to carry their arms and devastations into Syria, and even into Palestine. In a word, the Romans could never subject the Parthians to their yoke, and that nation was like a wall of brass, which with impregnable force resisted the most violent attacks of their power.

When the batfle of Carrs was fought, Orodes was in Armenia, where he had lately concluded a peace with Artehasus. The latter, upon the return of the expresses he had sent to Crassus, perceiving, by the false measures he had taken, that the Romans were infallibly lost, entered into an accommodation with Orodes, and, by giving one of his daughters to Pacorus, son of the Parthian king, he cemented by that alliance the treaty he had lately made. Whilst they were celebrating the nuptials, the head and hand of Crassus were brought to them, which Surena had caused to be cut off, and sent to the king, as a proof of his victory. Their joy was exceedingly augmented by that sight, and is is said that orders were given to pour molten gold into the mouth of that head, in mockery of the insatiable thirst which Crassus al-

ways had for that metal.

(Proh Curia, inversique mores!) Consenuit soccrerum la armia, Sub rege Medo, Marsus et Appulus, Abelliorum, nominis, et togu Oblitus, eteranque Veste, Incolumi Jove, et ure Roma?

Surena did not long enjoy the pleasure of his victory. His master, jealous of his glory, and of the credit it gave him, caused him to be put to death soon after. There are princes, near whom too shining qualities are dangerous, who take umbrage at the virtues they are forced to admire, and cannot bear to be served by superior talents, capable of eclipsing their own. Oredes was of this character. He perceived, as Tacitus observes of Tiberius, that with all his power he could not sufficiently repay the service his general had lately done him. Now, where a benefit is above all return, higratitude and hatred take the place of acknowledgment and affection.

Surems was a general of extraordinary merit. At thirty years of age he possessed consummate ability, and surpassed all the men of his time in valour. He was besides that, perfectly well made, and of the most advantageous stature. For riches, credit, and authority, he had also more than any man, and was undoubtedly, the greatest subject the king of Parthia had. His birth gave him the privilege of putting the crown upon the king's head at his coronation, and that right had appertained to his family from the establishment of the empire. When he travelled, he had always 1000 camels to carry his baggage, 200 chariots for his wives and concubines, and, for his guard, 1000 horse completely armed, besides a great number of light-armed troops and domestics, which in all did not amount to less than 10,000 men.

The Parthians, expecting, after the defeat of the Roman army, to find Syria without defence, marched to conquer it. But Cassius, who had formed an army out of the ruins of the other, received them with so much vigour, that they were obliged to repass the Euphrates shamefully, without effect-

ing any thing.

The next s year the consuls, M. Calpurnius Bibulus and M. Tullius Cicero, were assigned the provinces of Syria and Cilicia. Cicero repaired immediately to the latter, which had been allotted him; but Bibulus amusing himself at Rome, Cassius continued to command in Syria. And that was much to the advantage of the Romans; for the affairs of that country required a man of a quite different capacity from Bibulus. Pacorus, son of Orodes, king of the Parthians, had passed the Euphrates, in the beginning of the spring, at the head of a numerous army, and had entered Syria. He was too young to command alone, and was therefore accompanied by Orsaces, an old general, who disposed every thing

a Destrui per hee fortunam sum Cusar, imparemque tanto merito rebatur. Nam henchela eo meque issus sunt. dum videntur exsolvi posse; uhi maltum an-tovamere, pre gratia odium reddieur. Tacit. Amaal. l. iv. c. 18. A. M. 3983. Amt. J. C. 51. Cic. ad famil. l. il. Epist. 10. 17. iii. 2. zii. 19. xv. 1—4. Ad. Attic. l. v, 18, 20, 21. vb 1, 8. vli. 2.

He marched directly to Antioch, which he besieged. Cassius had shut himself up in that place with all his troops. Cicero, who had received advice of his condition in his province, by the means of Antiochus, king of Comagena, assembled all his forces, and marched to the eastern frontier of his province, which bordered upon Armenia, to oppose an invasion on that side, should the Armenians attempt it, and at the same time to be at hand to support Cassius in case of need. He sent another body of troops towards the mountain Amanus, with the same view. That detachment fell in with a large body of the Parthian cavalry, which had entered Cilicia, and entirely defeated it, so that not a single man escaped.

The news of this success, and that of Cicero's approach to Antioch, extremely encouraged Cassius and his troops to make a good defence, and so much abated the ardour of the Parthians, that despairing to carry the place, they raised the siege, and went to form that of Antigonia, which was not far from thence. But they were so little skilled in attacking towns, that they miscarried again before this, and were compelled to retire. We are not to be surprised at this, as the Parthians made their principal force consist in cavalry, and applied themselves most to engagements in the field, which suited their genius best. Cassius, who was apprized of the route they would take, laid an ambuscade for them, which they did not fail to fall into. He defeated them entirely, and killed a great number of them, amongst whom was their general Orsaces. The remains of their army repassed the Euphrates.

When Cicero saw the Parthians removed, and Antioch out of danger, he turned his arms against the inhabitants of mount Amanus, who, being situated between Syria and Cilica, were independent of and at war with both those provinces. They made continual incursions into them, and gave them great trouble. Cicero entirely subjected those mountaineers, and took and demolished all their castles and forts. He afterwards marched against another barbarous nation, a kind of savages, who called themselves a free Cilicians, and pretended to have never been subjected to the empire of any of the kings who had been masters of the countries round about. He took all their cities, and made such dispositions in the country as very much pleased all their neighbours,

whom they perpetually harassed.

It is Cicero himself who acquaints us with these circumstances in several of his letters. There are two among the rest, which may be looked upon as perfect models of the manner in which a general or commander ought to give a prince or his ministry an account of a military expedition;

with such simplicity, perspicuity, and precision, in which the proper character of writings and relations of this kind consists, they are expressed. The first is addressed to the senate and people of Rome, and to the principal magistrates; it is the second of his 15th book of his familiar epistles; the other is written particularly to Cato. This last is a masterpiece, wherein Cicero, who passionately desired the honour of a triumph for his military expeditions, employs all the art and address of eloquence to engage that grave senator in his favour. Plutarch tells us, a that after his return to Rome, the senate offered him a triumph, and that he refused it, upon account of the civil war then ready to break out between Casar and Pompey; not believing that it became him to celebrate a solemnity which breathed nothing but joy at a time when the state was upon the point of falling into the greatest calamities. His refusal to triumph in the midst of the apprehensions and disorders of a bloody civil war evinces in Cicero a great love for the public good and his country, and does him much more honour than a triumph itself could have done.

During the civil war between Pompey and Casar, and those that followed, the Parthians, declaring sometimes for one and sometimes for the other party, made several irruptions into Syria and Palestine. But those are events which particularly relate to the Roman or Jewish histories, and

therefore do not enter into my plan.

I shall conclude this abridgment of that of the Parthians with the deaths of Pacorus, and Orodes his father. Venti-dius, who commanded the Roman armies, under the authority of Anthony the triumvir, did not a little contribute to the re-establishing the honour of the nation. He was a soldier of fortune, who from the lowest condition of blife, had raised himself by his merit to the highest dignities of the republic. In the war against the allies of Rome, who attempted to extort the freedom of the city by force, he was taken when an infant, with his mother, in Asculum, the capital of the Picenians, by Strabo, the father of Pompey the Great, and led in triumph before that general. Supported by the credit of C. Cæsar, under whom he had served in Gaul, and who had raised him through all the degrees of the service, he became prator and consul. He was the only person that triumphed for his exploits against the Parthians, and the only one who obtained that honour, after having been led in a triumph himself.

I have said that Ventidius contributed very much to make the Romans amends for the affront they had received at the

e Plut. in Cie. p 879. 5 Vell. Patere. l. ii. c. 46. Valer, Max. L. vi. c. 9. Aul. Gell. L. zv. c. 4.

battle of Carræ. He had begun to revenge the defeat of Crassus and his army, by two successive victories gained over those terrible enemies. A third, still greater than the former, completed the work, and was obtained in this man-

That a general, apprehending the Parthians, whose preparations were far advanced, would get the start of him, and pass the Euphrates before he had time to draw all his troops together out of their different quarters, had recourse to this stratagem. There was a petty eastern prince in his camp, under the name of an ally, whom he knew to be entirely in the interest of the Parthians, and that he held secret intelligence with them, and gave them advice of all the designs of the Romans which he could discover. He resolved to make this man's treachery the means of drawing the Par-

thians into a snare he had laid for them.

With that view he contracted a more than ordinary intimacy with this traitor. He conversed frequently with him upon the operations of the campaign. Affecting at length to open himself to him with great confidence, he observed, that he was much afraid, from advices he had received, that the Parthians did not design to pass the Euphrates at Zeugma, as usual, but a great way lower. For, said he, if they pass at Zeugma, the country on this side is so mountainous. that the cavalry, in which the whole force of their army consists, can do us no great hurt. But, if they pass below, there is nothing but plains, where they will have all manner of advantages against us, and it will be impossible for us to make head against them. As soon as he had imparted this secret to him, the spy did not fail, as Ventidius had rightly foreseen, to communicate it to the Parthians, with whom it had all the effect he could desire. Pacorus, instead of going to Zeugma, immediately took the other route, lost abundance of time in the great compass he was obliged to take, and in the preparations necessary for passing the river there. Ventidius got 40 days by this means, which he employed in making Silon join him from Judza, with the legions which were quartered on the other side of mount Taurus, and found himself in a condition to give the Parthians a good reception when they entered Syria.

As they saw that they had not been attacked either in passing the river or afterwards, they attributed that inactivity to terror and cowardice, and marched directly to charge the enemy in their camp, though situated very advantageously upon an eminence, not doubting but they should soon make

e A. M 3965. Ant. J. C. 39. Joseph. Antiq. l. xiv. c. 24. Plut. in Antoni p. 931. Appian. in Parth. p. 156. Dion. Caps. l. xlix. p. 403, 494. Justin I. xlii. c. 4.

themselves masters of it, and that without much resistance. They were mistaken. The Romans quitted their camp, fell on them with impetuosity, and pushed them with the utmost vigour upon the declivity; and, as they had the advantage of the ground, and their light-armed troops from the top of the hill poured showers of darts upon the Parthians, they soon put them into disorder, notwithstanding the vigorous resistance they made at first. The slaughter was very great. Pacorus was killed in the battle, and his death was followed immediately with the flight of his whole army. The vanquished made haste to regain the bridge, in order to return into their own country; but the Romans prevented them, and cut the greatest part of them in pieces. Some few, escaping by flight, retired to Antiochus, king of Comagena. History observes, that this celebrated battle, which so well revenged the defeat of Crassus, was fought exactly on the same day with the battle of Carra, 14 years before.

Grodes was so struck with the loss of this battle and the death of his son, that he was almost out of his senses. For several days he neither opened his mouth nor took any nourishment. When the excess of his grief was a little abated and would permit him to speak, nothing was heard from him but the name of Pacorus. He imagined that he saw him, and called to him; he seemed to discourse with him, as if he were living, to speak to him, and hear him speak. At other times he remembered that he was dead, and shed a

torrent of tears.

Never was grief more just. This was the most fatal blow for the Parthian monarchy that it had ever received; nor was the loss of the prince less than that of the army itself. For he was the most excellent character the house of the Arsacidæ had ever produced, for justice, clemency, valour, and all the qualities which constitute the truly great prince. He had made himself so much beloved in Syria, during the little time that he resided there, that never did the people express more affection for any of their native sovereigns than for the person of this foreign prince.

When Orodes had a little recovered the dejection, into which the death of his dear son Pacorus had thrown him, he found himself extremely embarrassed about the choice of his successor out of his other children. He had 30 by different women, each of whom solicited him in favour of her own, and made use of all the ascendancy she had over a mind

a Oredea, repente filli morte et exercitas clade sudita, en dolore in furorem versitur. Multis diebus nos alloqui quenquam. non ciotan sumere, non vocem mittere, in ut etiam mutas factus vderetur. Post multos deinde dies, abi delor vocem lastaverat, mini aliod quam Pacorum vocabat. Pacorus illi videgi, Pacorum audiri videbatur: eum illo loqui, cum illo consisture. Entredum quari missimum fichilitar delebat. Jupilio.

impaired by age and affliction. At last he determined however to follow the order of birth, and nominated PHRAATES, the eldest, and also most vicious of them all. . He had scarcely taken possession of the throne, when he caused all his brothers, whom his father had by the daughter of Antiochus Eusebes, king of Syria, to be murdered, and that only because their mother was of a better family than his, and they had more merit than himself. The father, who was still alive, not being able to avoid professing extreme displeasure upon that occasion, that unnatural son ordered him also to be put to death. He treated the rest of his brothers in the same manner, and did not spare his own son, from the apprehension that the people would set him upon the throne in his stead. It was this prince, so cruel in regard to all his own family, that treated Hyrcanus, king of the Jews, with peculiar favour and clemency.

ARTICLE III:

ABRIDGMENT OF THE HISTORY OF THE KINGS OF CAPPADOGIA.

I have spoken in several parts of this history of the kings of Cappadocia, according as I had occasion, but without mentioning either their beginning or succession. I shall here unite in one point of view all that relates to that kingdom.

Cappadocia is a great country of Asia Minor. The Persians, under whom it was at first, had divided it into two parts, and established two satrapies, or governments, in it. The Macedonians, into whose possession it fell, suffered those two governments to be changed into kingdoms. The one extended towards mount Taurus, and was properly called Cappadocia, or Cappadocia Major, the other towards Pontus, and was called Cappadocia Pontica, or Cappadocia Minor; they were at length united into one kingdom.

Strabo says, that Ariarathes was the first king of Cappadocia, but does not mention at what time he began to reign. c It is probable that is was about the time that Philip, father of Alexander the Great, began to reign in Macedonia, and Ochus in Persia; admitting that the kingdom of Cappadocia continued 376 years before it was reduced into a pro-

vince of the Roman empire under Tiberius.

It was governed at first by a long succession of kings named Ariarathes, then by kings called Ariobarzanes, who did

a A. M. 3967. Ant. J. C. 37. 5 Strab 1. xii. p. 533, 534. C. A. M. J. C. 306.

•

not exceed the third generation; and at length by the last, Archelaus. According to Diodorus Siculus, there had been many kings of Cappadocia before Ariarathes; but, as their history is almost entirely unknown, I thall make no mention of it in this place.

* ARIARATHES I. He reigned jointly with his brother Ho-

losernes, for whom he had a particular affection.

b Having joined the Persians in the expedition against Egypt, he acquired great glory, and returned home laden

with honours by king Ochus.

c ARIARATHES II. son of the former, had lived at peace in his dominions, during the wars of Alexander the Great, who, out of impatience to come to blows with Darius, was unwilling to be delayed by the conquest of Cappadocia, and had centented himself with some instances of submission.

After that prince's death, Cappadocia, in the partition made of the provinces of his empire by his generals, fell to Eumenes. Perdiccas, to put him into possession of it conducted him thither at the head of a powerful army. Ariarathes on his side prepared for a vigorous defence. He had 30,000 foot and a numerous cavalry. They came to a battle. Ariarathes was defeated and taken prisoner. Perdiccas caused him, with his principal officers, to be crucified, and put Eumenes into possession of his dominions.

ARIARATHES III. After the death of his father, he escap-

ed into Armenia.

d As soon as he was apprized of the death of Perdiccas and Eumenes, and the employment which other wars gave Antiochus and Seleucus, he entered Cappadocia with troops lent him by Ardoates, king of Armenia. He defeated Amyntas, general of the Macedonians, drove him out of the country, and re-ascended the throne of his ancestors.

c ARIAMNES, his eldest son, succeeded him. He entered into an alliance with Antiochus Theos, king of Syria, and married his eldest son to Stratonice, the daughter of the same Antiochus. He had so great an affection for this son,

that he made him his colleague in the kingdom.

ARIARATHES IV. having reigned alone after the death of his father, left his dominions, when he died, to his son of the same name with himself, who was at that time very

Young.

JARIARATHES V. He married Antiochis, daughter of Antiochus the Great, an artful princess, who, finding herself barren, had recourse to imposture. She deceived her husband, and made him believe that she had two sons, one of

a A. M. 3644. Ant J. C. 360.
c A. M. 3668. Ant J. C. 336. Plut. in Eumen. p 548 Diod. i. xviii. p. 590.
c A. M. 3730. Ant. J. C. 324.
f A. M. 3814. Ant. J. C. 374.

whom was called Ariarathes, and the other a Holophernes. Her barrenness ceasing some time after, she had two daughters, and then one son, who was named Mithridates. She confessed the fraud to her husband, and sent the elder of the supposititious children to be brought up at Rome, with a small train, and the other into Ionia. The legitimate son took the name of Ariarathes, and was educated after the manner of the Greeks.

ARIARATEES V. supplied his father-in-law, Antiochus, king of Syria, with troops, in the war which he undertook against the Romans. Antiochus having been defeated, Ariarathes sent ambassadors to Rome, to ask pardon of the senate, for having been obliged to declare against the Romans in favour of his father-in-law. This was granted him. but not till after he had been condemned to pay, by way of expiation of his fault, 200 talents, that is to say, 200,000 crowns. The senate afterwards abated him half that sum, at the request of Eumenes, king of Pergamus, who had lately married his daughter.

Ariarathea afterwards entered into an alliance with his son-in-law Eumenes, against Pharnaces, king of Pontus. The Romans, who had rendered themselves arbiters of the kings of the East, sent ambassadors to negotiate a treaty between those three princes: but Pharnaces rejected their mediation. However, two years after, he was obliged to treat with Eumenes and Ariarathes upon conditions suffi-

ciently hard.

The latter had a son of his own name, who loved him in the most tender manner, which occasioned his being surnamed Philopator, and for whom he had no less affection. He desired to give him proofs of it by resigning the kingdom to him, and placing him upon the throne during his life. 'The son, who had all possible affection and respect for a father who so well deserved both, could not resolve to accept an offer so advantageous in the vulgar opinion of men, but one which aimed a mortal wound at so good a heart as his, and represented to his father, that he was not one of those who could comment to reign during the life of him to whom he owed his being. Such examples of moderation, generosity, disinterestedness, and sincereaffection for a father, are the more extraordinary and the more to be admired, as, in the times of which we are now relating the history, inordinate ambition respected nothing, and boldly violated the most sacred ties of nature and religion.

ARIARATHES VI. surnamed Philopator, reigned after his

er He is called so by Polyhèus, and Orophernes by Dioderus Sicults. 5 Liv. I. xxxvii. n. 40. I. naxviii. n. 37 et 39. 6 A. M. 3841. Ant. J. C. 16. . Diod. in Eclog. I. xxxi. p. 366.

father's death, and was an excellent prince. As soon as he ascended the throne, he sent an embassy to Rome, to renew the alliance his father had contracted with the Romans, which he found no difficulty to obtain. He applied himself very closely to the study of philosophy, from whence Cappadocia, which, till then, had been unknown to the Greeks, became the residence of many learned men.

Demetrius, king of Syria, had a sister whom Ariarathes refused to espouse, lest that alliance should give offence to the Romans. The refusal extremely prejudiced Demetrius against the king of Cappadocia. He soon found an occasion to be revenged, by supplying Holophernes with troops, who pretended to be the brother of Ariamathes, expelled him from the throne, and after that violence reigned tyrannically. He put many to death, confiscated the counter of the greatest noblemen, and even plundered a temple of Jupiter, which had been reverenced by the people from time immemorial, and had never suffered such a violation before. Apprehending a revolution, which his cruelty gave him reason to expect, he deposited 400 talents with the inhabitants of Priene, a city of Ionia. Ariarathes had taken refuge at Rome, to implore aid of the Romans. The usurper sent his deputies thither also. The senate, according to the usual motives of their policy, decreed that the kingdom should be divided between the two brothers.

e Ariarathes found a more ready and more effectual protector in the person of Attalua, king of Pergamus, who signalized the beginning of his reign by re-establishing this unfortunate prince upon the throne of his ancestors. Ariarathes, to revenge himself on the usurper, wished to compel the inhabitants of Priene to deliver into his hands the 400 talents. Holophernes had lest with them. They opposed that demand, with pleading the inviolable faith of deposits, which would not admit their giving up that sum to any one whosever, during the life of the person who had confided it to their keeping. Ariarathes had no regard to so just a representation, and laid waste their lands without mercy, notwithstanding which, so considerable a loss did not induce them to violate the fidelity they thought themselves obliged to observe in regard to him who had confided that deposit with them.

Holophernes had & retired to Antisch, where he joined in a conspiracy with the inhabitants of that city against Demetrius his benefactor, whose place he had conceived hopes of supplying. The conspiracy was discovered, and Holophernes

[#] Diod. in Excerpt. p. 334 et 336. c A. M. 3845. Ant. J. C. 189.

b Four hundred thousand crowns.
d Justin. l. XXXV. c. i.

imprisoned. Demetrius would have put him to death directly, if he had not judged it more advisable to reserve him, in order to make use of him afterwards in the pretensions he had upon Cappadocia, and the design he had formed of dethroning and destroying Ariarathes, but he was prevented by the plot contrived against him by the three kings of Egypt, Pergamus, and Cappadocia, who set Alexander Bala upon the throne in his stead.

a Ariarathes aided the Romans against Aristonicus, who had possessed himself of the kingdom of Pergamus, and pe-

rished in that war.

He left six children, whom he had by Laodice. The Romans, in gratitude for the father's services, added Lycaonia and Cilicia to their dominions. Laodice, who was regent during the minority of those six princes, apprehending the loss of her authority when they should be of age to reign, poisoned five of them the same year their father died. She would have treated the sixth in the same manner, if the vigilance of relations had not removed him from the fury of that unnatural mother. The people set him upon the throne, after having destroyed that cruei murderess of her children.

ARIARATHES VII. • He married another Laodice, sister of Mithridates Eupator, and had two sons by her, ARIARATHES VIII. and ARIARATHES IX. His brother-in-law caused him to be murdered by Gordius, one of his subjects. Laodice afterwards married Nicomedes, king of Bithynia, who immediately took possession of Cappadocia. Mithridates sent an army thither, drove out the garrisons of Nicomedes, and restored the kingdom to his nephew, the son of the same Ariarathes whom he had caused to be assassinated.

ARIARATHES VIII. had scarcely ascended the throne, when Mithridates pressed him to recal Gordius from banishment, with design to rid himself of the son by the same assassin who had killed the father. That young prince shuddered at the proposal, and raised an army to oppose the violence of his uncle. Mithridates being unwilling to decide his measures by the hazard of a battle, chose rather to draw Ariarathes to a conference, in which he assassinated him, with a dagger concealed for that purpose, in the view of the two armies. He set his own son of only eight years of age in his place, caused him to be called Ariarathes, and gave him Gordius for his governor c. The Cappadocians, not being able to bear the oppression of the lieutenants of Mithridates, rose in arms, called in Ariarathes, the late king's brother, from Asia and placed him upon the throne.

ARIARATHES IX. Soon after his return, Mithridates

[#] A. M. 3876. Ant. J. C. 129. Justin. l.xxxvii. c. 1. _ & A. M. 3918. Apt. J. C. 98. M. l. mxxviii c. 1. _ _ o Justin. l. xxxviii c. L

attacked, overthrew, and expelled him the kingdom. That young prince's grief brought a disease on him, of which he died soon after. Mithridates had re-established his son upon the throne.

Nicomedes, king of Bithynia, apprehending that Mithridates, being in possession of Cappadocia, might fall upon his dominions, set up an infant of eight years of age, to whom he also gave the name of Ariarathes, and sent deputies to the Romans to demand the kingdom of his father in his name. Queen Laodice his wife went expressly to Rome, to support the imposture, and to testify that she had three sons by ARIARATHES VII. of whom this, which she produced, was the last. Mithridates, on his side, ventured to have assurances made by Gordius, that this son, whom he had placed upon the throne, was the son of that Ariarathes who had been killed in the war against Aristonicus. What times were these! what a series is here of frauds and impostures! The Roman people saw through them; and, in order not to support them on either side, decreed that Mithridates should renounce Cappadocia, which for the future should enjoy its liberty, and govern itself as it thought proper. But the Cappadocians sent to Rome to declare that liberty was insupportable to them, and to demand a king. We may justly be astonished at the taste of a people, who could prefer slavery to liberty! But there are nations to which the monarchical is better adapted than the republican government; and there are few people who are wise enough to make a moderate use of perfect and entire liberty. The Cappadocians elected, or rather received from the Romans, Ariobarzanes for their king, whose family was extinct at the third generation.

ARIOBARZANES I. This new prince did not enjoy his dignity in peace. Mithraas and Bagoas, generals of Tigranes, drove him out of Cappadocia, and established there Ariarathes, son of Mithridates. The Romans caused Ariobarzanes to be re-instated. He was expelled some time after by an army sent by Mithridates into Cappadocia in favour of his son. Sylla, having obtained great advantages over Mithridates, compelled him to abandon Cappadocia. Some time after, at the instigation of that prince, Tigranes invaded that kingdom, and carried off 300,000 men, to whom he gave lands in Armenia. Ariobarzanes, who had escaped to Rome before the invasion, was not restored till Pompey had put an end to the war with Mithridates.

& ARIOBARZANES II. Pompey had considerably enlarged the dominions of Ariobarzanes, when he replaced him on the

a A M. 3915. Ant. J C. 89. Appian. in Mitheid. p. 174. &c. Justin. b. 3834. Ant. J. C. 66. VOL. VIII. B

throne of Cappadocia. His son succeeded to all that great inheritance, but did not keep it long. He was killed some time before Cicero went to command in Cilicia. The prince who reigned at that time was Ariobarzanes III. grandsom of Ariobarzanes I.

*ARIOBARZANES III. Cicero, upon quitting Rome, had received orders to favour and protect Ariobarzanes with all possible care, as a prince whose welfare was dear to the senate and people: a glorious testimonial, which had never before been granted to any king Cicero punctually executed the order of the senate. When he arrived in Cilicia. Ariobarzanes was menaced with being killed, as his father had been. A conspiracy was on foot against him, in favour of his brother Ariarathes. The latter declared to Cicero, that he had no part in that plot; that indeed he had been earnestly solicited to accept the kingdom, but that he had always been infinitely averse to such thoughts, during the life of his brother, who had no issue. Cicero employed the authority of his office, and all the credit his high reputation gave him, to dispel the storm with which the king was threatened. His b endeavours were successful; he saved the king's life and crown by his resolution, and a generous disinterestedness, which rendered him inaccessible to all the attempts that were made to corrupt his integrity and to seduce him. The greatest danger came from the high-priest of Comana. There were two principal cities of that name, the one in Cappadocia and the other in the kingdom of Pontus. They were consecrated to Bellona, and observed almost the same ceremonies in the worship of that goddess. The one was formed upon the model of the other; that of Pontus upon that of Cappadocia. It is of the latter we speak in this place. The temple of that goddess was endowed with great estates, and served by a vast number of persons, under the authority of a pontiff, a man of great influence, and so considerable, that the king only was his superior: he was generally of the blood royal His dignity was for life. Strabo says, that in his time there were above 6000 persons consecrated to the service of this temple. From hence the highpriest was so powerful, and, d in the time of which we

c Strabo, l. xii. p. 535 et 557.

a A. M. 3953. Ant. J. C. 51. Cic. Epist. 2 et 4. l. xv. Famil. et Epist. 20. l. v. ad Attic.

^{δ Ariobarsanes opera mea vivit, regnat 'Eν καρόδφ, consilio, et auccoritate, et quod proditoribus ejus ἀπρόσιτον με, non modo ἀδοροδοκητον, præbui, regem, regnumque servavi. Cie. Ερίει. 20. l. v. ad Attie.}

d Cum magnum bellum in Cappadocia concitaretur, si sacerdos armis se (quod iacturus putubatur) defenderet, adolescens et equitatu et peditatu et pecensis paratus, et toto, iis qui novari ahquid volchant, perfèci ut e regno ille discederet; rexque sine tumujtu ac sine armis, omni anctoritate aulæ communita, regnum acun diguitate obtineret. Cic. Epist 4. jib. xv. ad Famil.

speak, might have occasioned a very dangerous war, and involved Ariobarzanes in great difficulties, had he thought proper to defend himself by force of arms, as it was believed he would; for he had troops, both horse and foot ready to take the field, with great funds to pay and subsist them. But Cicero, by his prudence, prevailed upon him to retire out of the kingdom, and to leave Ariobarzanes in the

peaceable possession of it.

During the civil war between Comrand Pempey, Ariobarzanes marched with some troops to the latter, who were present at the battle of Pharsalia. This, no doubt, was the reason that Cresar laid Ariobarzanes under contribution. It is certain that he exacted very considerable sums of money from him a; for that prince represented to him, that it would be impossible for him to pay them, if Pharnaces continued to plunder Cappadocia. Casar was then in Egypt, from whence he set out to reduce Pharnaces to reason. He passed through Cappadocia, and made such regulations there as imply that Ariobarzanes and his brother kept up no very good understanding with each other, and entirely subjected the latter to the authority of the former. After Casar had conquered Pharnaces b, he gave part of Cilicia and Armenia to Ariobarzanes.

c This mild treatment gave the murderers of Ocesar reason to believe, that the king of Cappadocia would not favour their party. He did not openly declare against them, but he refused to enter into their alliance. This conduct gave them a just diffidence of him, so that Cassius thought it incumbent upon him not to spare him. He attacked him, and having

taken him prisoner, put him to death.

ARIARATHES X. By the death of Ariobarsanes, the kingdom of Cappadocia fell to his brother Ariarathes. The possession of it was disputed with him by Sisinna, the eldest son of Glaphyra, wife of Archelaus, high-priest of Bellona, at Comana, in Cappadocia. This Archelaus was the grandson of Archelaus, a Cappadocian by nation, and general of an army in Greece for Mithridates against Sylla. He abandoned the party of Mithridates in the second war, as we shall relate in the 22d book, and joined the Romans d. He left one son, named also Archelaus, who married Berenice, queen of Egypt, and was killed six months after in a battle. He had obtained a very honourable dignity from Pompey, which was the high-priesthood of Comana, in Cappadocia. His son Archelaus possessed it after him. He married Glaphyra, a lady of extraordinary beauty, and had two sons by her, Si-

a Cesar de Bell. Civ. f. iii. Hivt. de Bell. Alem. 6 Dio. l. xlii. p. 183. c A. M. 3903; Aut. J. C. 43. Dio. l. xlvft. p. 346. d Strab. l. xii. p. 558. Dio. l. xxxix. p. 116.

sinna and Archelaus. The first disputed the kingdom of Cappadocia with Ariarathes, who possessed it.

Mark Antony was the judge of this difference, and determined it in favour of Sisinna. What became of him is not known; history only tells us, that Ariarathes re-ascended the throne. Five or six years after Mark Antony expelled him b, and set Archelaus, the second son of Glaphyra, upon the throne.

ARCHELAUS. That prince became very powerful. He expressed his gratitude to Mark Antony by joining him with good troops at the battle of Actium. He was so fortunate, notwithstanding that conduct, as to escape the resentment of Augustus. He was suffered to keep possession of Cappadocia, and was almost the only one treated with so much favour.

d He assisted Tiberius to re-establish Tigranes in Armenia, and obtained of Augustus Armenia Minor and a great part of Cilicia. Tiberius rendered him great services with Augustus, especially when his subjects brought accusations against him before that prince. He pleaded his cause himself, and was the occasion of his gaining it. Archelaus fixed his residence in the island of Eleusis, near the coast of Cilicia, and, having married Pythodoris, the widow of Polemon, king of Pontus, he considerably augmented his power. For, as the sons of Polemon were infants at that time, he had undoubtedly the administration of their kingdom jointly with their mother.

His reign was very long and happy: • but his latter years were unfortunate, and his misfortunes were the consequence of Tiberius's revenge. That prince, who saw with pain that Caius and Lucius, the sons of Agrippa, grandsons of Augustus, and his sons by adoption, were raised by degrees above him /; to avoid giving umbrage to the two young Czsars, and to spare himself the mortification of being witness to their aggrandizement, demanded and obtained permission to retire to Rhodes, under pretext that he had occasion to withdraw from business and the hurry of Rome for the reestablishment of his health. His retreat was considered as a real banishment, and people began to neglect him as a person in disgrace, and did not believe it safe to appear his

a A. M. 3863. Ant. J. C. 41. Appian. de bell. Civ. l. v. p. 675.
ô A. M. 3968. Ant J. C. 86. Dro. l. xlix. p. 411.
c A. M. 3971. Ant J. C. 33. Plut in Anton. 944.
d A. M. 3984. Ant. J. C. 20. Joseph Antig. l. xv. e. 5. Dio. Leliv. p. 526. Sueton in Tib. e. viii. Die l. Ivii. p. 614. Strab. l. xiv. p. 671. et l. xii p.

e A. M. 2988. Ant, J C 16. Dio. in Excerpt p. 662. Sucton in Tib. c. x. Vell. Paterc, I. ii c. 99.

^{&#}x27;Ne fulgor suus orientium juvenum obstaret initiis, dissimulata causa consilji sui commentum ab socero atque asdem vitrico asquiescandi a continuatione laborum pettit. Paterc. 1. In c. 99.

friends. During his stay at Rhodes, king Archelaus, who was not at a great distance from thence, residing generally at Eleusis, paid him no honours, forgetting the great obligations he had to him. It was not, says Tacitus, out of price or haughtiness, but by the advice of Augustus's principal friends, who believed the amity of Tiberius dangerous at that time. Con the contrary, when young Caius Casar, appointed governor of the East, was sent into Armenia by Augustus, to appease the troubles of that country, Archelaus, who looked upon him as the future successor to the empire, paid him all kind of honours, and distinguished himself by the zeal with which he paid his court to him. Politicians are often mistaken in their conjectures, for want of a clear insight into futurity. It would have been more consistent with prudence and wisdom in Archelaus to have observed such a conduct as would have been agreeable to each of the princes, who might both arrive at the empire. Something of this nature is observed of Pomponius & Atticus, who during the divisions, with which the republic was torn at different times, always knew how to render himself agreeable to the heads of both parties.

Tiberius never forgot the injurious preference that had been given to his rival, which was the more offensive to him as it argued an ungrateful disposition in Archelaus. He made him highly sensible of this when he became master. Archelaus was cited to Rome, as having endeavoured to excite troubles in the province. Livia wrote to him, and without dissembling the emperor's anger, gave him hopes of pardon, provided he came in person to demand it. This was a snare laid for drawing him out of his kingdom. The r king of Cappadocia either did not perceive it or dared not to act as if he did. He set out for Rome, was very ill received by Tiberius, and saw himself shortly after proceeded against as a criminal. Dion assures us, that Archelaus, depressed with age, was generally believed to have lost his reason, but that

a Rex Archelaus quinquagesimum annum Cappullocia potichatur, invisus Tiberio, quod cum Rhodi agontem nullo officio coluistete Res id Ascholaus persoperhiam omiscret, act ab intignis Augusti montus; quie florente Calo Ceasare, miscoque ad res Orientis, intuta Tiberii amicitia cradebatur. Tacit. An na]. l. ii. c. 42.

b Eleusis was but six leagues distant from Rhodes. Strab. l. xiv. p. 681.

c A. M. 4004. Ant. J. C. 2.

d Hoc quale sit, facilius existimabit is, qui judiente poterit quantos sit sapien-tiz, corum retinere usum benevelentismoque, inter quos maximarum zerum non

tize, corum retriner usum benevelentanque, inter que manimarum retum non solum semulatio, sed obtrectatio cama intercedebat, quantam futi incidere necesse inter Cesarem atque Antonium, cum se uterque principem non solum urbis Romana sed orbis terrarum case cuperet. Com. Nep. in Attie. c. xx. e A. M. 4010. Ap. Dom. 16.

f Ille ignarus doli, vel; si intelligere videretur, vim metuene, in urbem properat; exceptusque immiti a principe, et mox accusatus a senatu; non ob erimina, ques fingebantur, sed angore, simul fessus serio, et quia regibus aqua, nedun infima, insolita sune, finem vitze sponte an iato implevit. Tacit. Ann. 1; c. 48. L ji 6 48.

ih reality he was perfectly in his senses, and counterfeited the madman, because he saw no other means of saving his life. The senate passed no sentence against him: but age, the gout, and, more than those, the indignity of the treatment he was made to suffer, soon occasioned his death. He had reigned 52 years. After his death, Cappadocia was reduced into a province of the Roman empire.

This kingdom was very powerful. The revenues of Cappadocia were so considerable when Archelaus died, that Tiberius thought himself able, from his new acquisition, to abate the half of a tax he had caused to be levied. He even gave that province some relief, and would not exact from it

all the duties it had paid the last king.

The kings of Cappadocia generally resided at Mazaca a, a city situate upon the mountain Argea, and which was governed by the laws of b Charondas. This city was built upon the river Melas, which empties itself into the Euphrates. A king of Cappadocia, whom Strabo calls simply Ariarathes, without mentioning the time when he lived, having filled up the mouths of this river, it overflowed all the neighbouring country; after which he caused small islands to be made in it, after the manner of the Cyclades, where he passed part of his life in puerile diversions. The river broke the dams of its mouths, and the waters returned into their channel. The Euphrates, having received them, overflowed, and did incredible damage in Cappadocia. The Galatians, who inhabited Phrygia, suffered also great losses by that inundation, for which they insisted upon being made amends. They demanded three hundred talents of the king of Cappadocia, and made the Romans their judges.

Cappadocia abounded with horses, asses c, and mules. was from thence the horses were brought, so particularly allotted for the use of the emperors that the consuls themselves were forbidden to have any of them. It furnished also a great number of slaves a and false witnesses. The Cappadocians were reported to accustom themselves to the bearing of torments from their infancy, and to put one another to the rack, and other methods of torture, in order to inure themselves against the pains their false witness might one day expose them to suffer. This people exceeded the Greek nation in perjury e, though the latter had carried that vice to a great height, if we may believe Cicero, who ascribes to them the having made this manner of speaking common

a Strab l. xii. p. 537, 539. b This Charondas was a celebrated legislator of Greek Major, of which mention has been made.

c Boch. Phaleg. l. iii. e. :1 Schol. Persii.

d Mancipiis locuples eget teris Cappadocum rex. Horat.

€ Clc. pro Flac. n. 9, 10.

amongst them; " Lend me your evidence and I will pay

" you with mine."

Cappadocia, generally speaking, was far from being a country of great geniuses and learned men. It has produced, however, some very celebrated authors. Strabo and Pausanias are of that number.

It was believed, especially, that the Cappadocians were very unfit for the profession of orators; and it became a proverb, that a b thetorician of that country was as hard to be found as a white raven or a flying tortoise. S. Basil and S. Gregory Nazianzen are exceptions to that rule.

q Da mihi testimonium mutuum.

Θάττον έην λευμις πορακας πτηνάζε χελώνας Βυρείν, η δόκιμαν βήτορα Καππαδόκην:

BOOK THE TWENTY-FIRST.

THE

HISTORY

OF

SYRACUSE.

ARTICLE I.

SECT. I.

Hero II. chosen captain-general by the Syracusans, and soon after appointed king.

a Hiero II. was descended from the family of Gelon, who had formerly reigned in Syracuse. As his mother was a slave, his father Hierocles, according to the barbarous custom of those times, caused him to be exposed soon after his birth; believing that the infant dishonoured the nobility of his race. If Justin's fabulous account may be believed, the bees nourished him several days with their honey. The oracle declaring that so singular an event was a certain presage of his future greatness. Hierocles caused him to be brought back to his house, and took all possible care of his education.

The child derived from this education all the benefit that could be expected. He distinguished himself early from all those of his years by his address in military exercises and his courage in battle. He acquired the esteem of Pyrrhus, and received several rewards from his hands. He was of a beautiful aspect, tall stature, and robust complexion. In his conversation he was affable and polite, in business just, and moderate in command; so that he wanted nothing but the title of king, as he already possessed all the qualities that adorn that rank.

c Discord having arisen between the citizens of Syracuse and their troops, the latter, who were in the neighbourhood, raised Artemidorus and Hiero to the supreme command, which comprehended all authority civil and military. The latter was at that time 30 years old, but displayed a prudence

a A. M. 3700. Ant. J. C. 304. Justin. l. xxiii. e. 4.

§ In alloquio blandus, in negotio justus, in imperio moleratus; pressus ut nibil es regium deesse, prester regnam videretur. Justin.

c A. M. 3729. Ant. J. C. 373. Polyb. l. i. p. 8, 9.

and maturity that gave promise of a great king. Honoured with this command, by the help of some friends he entered the city, and having found means to bring over the adverse party, who were intent upon nothing but raising disorders, he behaved with so much wisdom and greatness of mind, that the Syracusans, though highly dissatisfied with the liberty assumed by the soldiers of making such an election without any right, were however unanimous in conferring upon him the title and power of supreme commander.

From his first measure it was easy to judge that the new magistrate aspired at something more than that office. In fact, observing that the troops no sooner quitted the city than Syracuse was involved in new troubles by seditious spirits and lovers of innovation, he perceived how important it was, in the absence of himself and the army, to have somebody upon whom he might rely for keeping the citizens within the bounds of their duty. Leptines seemed very fit for that purpose, he had abundance of persons devoted to his interests, and great influence with the people. Hiero attached him to himself for ever, by espousing his daughter, and by the same alliance secured the public tranquillity, during the time he should be obliged to remove from Syracuse, and march at the head of the armies.

Another much bolder, though far less just, stroke of policy established his security and repose. He had every thing to fear from the foreign soldiers; turbulent, malignant men, void of respect for their commanders, and of affection for a state of which they made no part, solely actuated by the desire of command and lucre, and always ready for a revolt; who, having been bold enough to assume a right in the election of magistrates, which did not belong to them, were capable, upon the least discontent, of attempting any thing against himself. He easily comprehended that he should never have the mastery over them, as they were too well united amongst themselves; that, if he undertook to punish the most criminal, their chastisement would not fail to provoke the rest; and that the only means to put an end to the troubles they occasioned was utterly to exterminate this factious body of troops, whose licentiousness and rebellious disposition were only fit to corrupt others, and incline them to pernicious excesses. Deceived by a false zeal and blind love for the public good, and sensibly affected also with the prospect of the dangers to which he was perpetually exposed, he thought it incumbent on him, for the safety of his country and security of his person, to proceed to this cruel and sad extremity, equally contrary to his character and justice, but which seemed necessary to him in the present conjuncture. He therefore took the field under the pretext of marching against the Mamertines. When he came within view of the enemy, he divided his army into two parts: on the one side he posted such of the soldiers as were Syracusans: on the other, those who were not so. He put himself at the head of the first, as if he intended an attack, and left the others exposed to the Mamertinea, who cut them in pieces, after which he returned quietly to the city with the Syracusan

The army being thus purged of all who might excite disorders and sedition, he raised a sufficient number of new troops, and afterwards discharged the duties of his function in peace. The Mamertines, elate with their success, advancing into the country, he marched against them with the Syracusan troops, whom he had armed and disciplined well, and gave them battle in the plain of Myla. A great part of the enemies were left upon the place and their generals made prisoners. At his return he was declared king by all citizens of Syracuse, and afterwards by all the allies. This happened seven years after his being raised to the supreme authority.

It would be difficult to justify the manner in which he attained that eminence. Whether he put the foreign soldiers in motion himself, which seems probable enough, or only lent himself to their seal, it was a criminal infidelity to his country and the public authority, to which his example gave a mortal wound. It is true the irregularity of his entrance upon office was somewhat amended by the consent which the people and allies afterwards gave to it. But can we suppose that in such a conjuncture their consent was perfectly free? As to his being elected king, there was nothing of compulsion in that: if his secret ambition had any part in it, that fault was well atomed for by his wise and disinterested conduct through the long duration of his reign and life.

The less of the battle we have spoken of entirely disconcerted the affairs of the Mannertines. Some of them had recourse to the Carthaginians, to whom they surrendered their citadel; others resolved to abandon the city to the Romans, and sent to desire their aid. Hence arose the first Punic war,

as I have explained more at large clsewhere.

"Appius Claudius, the consul, put to sea, in order to aid the Mamertines. Not being able to pass the strait of Messina, of which the Carthaginians had possessed themselves, he made a feint of abandoning that enterprise, and of returning towards Rome with all the troops he had on board his fleet. Upon this news the enemy, who blocked up Messina on the

a They were originally troops from Campania, whom Agathoeles had taken into his pay, and who afterwards existed Messian. having first put the principal inhabitants to the sword.

6 A. M. 3730. Ant. J. C. 386, d Frontin. Strang. L i. c. 4.

side next the sea, having retired as if there had been nothing farther to apprehend, Appius tacked about, and passed the

strait without danger.

"The Mamertines, partly through menaces and partly through surprise, having driven out of the citadel the officers who commanded in it for the Carthaginians, called in Appius, and opened the gates of their city to him. The Carthaginians soon after formed the siege of it, and made a treaty of alliance with Hiero, who joined his troops to theirs. The Roman consul thought fit to venture a battle, and attacked the Syracusans first. The fight was warm. Hiero showed all possible courage, but could not resist the valour of the Romans, and was obliged to give way, and retire to Syracuse. Claudius, having obtained a like victory over the Carthaginians, saw himself master of the field, advanced to the walls of Syracuse, and even designed to have besieged it.

b When the news of Appius's good success arrived at Rome, it occasioned great joy: in order to make the most of it, it was thought proper to use new efforts. The two consuls lately elected, Manius Otacilius and Manius Valerius, were ordered into Sicily. Upon their arrival, several of the Carthaginian and Syracusan cities surrendered at discretion.

The consternation of Sicily, joined to the number and force of the Roman legions, made Hiero conceive what event this new war was likely to have. That prince was sensible that he might rely upon a more faithful and constant amity on the side of the Romans. He knew that the Carthaginians had not renounced the design they had anciently formed, of possessing themselves of all Sicily; and, if they made themselves masters of Messina, he rightly judged his power would be very insecure in the neighbourhood of such dangerous and formidable enemies. He saw no other expedient for the preservation of his kingdom than to leave the Carthaginians engaged with the Romans; well assured that the war would be long and obstinate between these two republics, whose strength was equal; and that as long as they should be contending he should have no reason to apprehend being distressed either by the one or the other. He therefore sent ambassadors to the consuls to treat of peace and alliance. They were far from refusing those offers. They were too much afraid, that the Carthaginians, being masters at sea, might cut off all passage for provisions; which fear was the better founded, as the troops who had first passed the strait had suffered extremely by famine. An alliance with Hiero secured the legions in that respect, and was immediately concluded. The conditions were, that the king should restore to the Romans, without ransom, all the prisoners he a Polyh. I. i. p. 10, 11. J.A. M. 3741. Aut. J. C. 263, Polyh. I i. p. 15, 16.

had taken from them, and pay them a hundred a talents in

money.

From thenceforth Hiero saw no war in his dominions, nor had any other share in it than sending supplies to the Romans upon occasion. In other respects he reigned as a king who had no view nor ambition but the esteem and love of his people. No prince was ever more successful in that point, nor longer enjoyed the fruits of his wisdom and prudence. During more than fifty years that he lived after being elected king, whilst all things were in flames around him, occasioned by the cruel wars which the two most potent states of the world made against each other, he was so prudent and happy as to be no more than a spectator of them, and only to hear the noise of those arms which shook all the neighbouring regions, whilst himself and his people retained a profound

^b The Romans perceived, on more than one occasion, during the first Punic war, and especially at the siege of Agrigentum, with which it was in a manner opened, the importance of their alliance with Hiero, who abundantly supplied them with provisions at times when the Roman army, without his aid, would have been exposed to excessive famine.

The interval between the end of the first Punic war and the commencement of the second, which was about 25 years, was a time of peace and tranquillity to Hiero, in which the

actions of that prince are little spoken of.

c Polybius only informs us, that the Carthaginians, in the unhappy war they were obliged to support against the strangers or mercenaries, which was called the African war, finding themselves extremely pressed, had recourse to their allies, and especially to king Hiero, who granted them all they asked of him. That prince perceived, that, to support himself in Sicily, it was necessary that the Carthaginians should overcome in this war; lest the strangers, who had already obtained many advantages over the Carthaginians, in case of entire success, should find no farther obstacle to their projects, and should form designs of bringing their victorious arms into Sicily. Perhaps, also, as he was an excellent politician, he thought it incumbent on him to be upon his guard against the two great power of the Romans, who would become absolute masters, if the Carthaginians should be entirely ruined in the war against the revolters.

Hiero's sole application, during his long interval of peace, was to make his subjects happy, and to redress the evils which the unjust government of Agathocles, who preceded him some years, and the intestine divisions which ensued, had

⁴ A hundred thousand crowns. 6 Polyh. i. i. p. 18. c A, M. 3763. Ant. J. C. 341. Polyh. i. p. 84.

occasioned; an employment worthy of a king. There was a levity and inconstancy in the character of the Syracusans, which often inclined them to excessive and violent resolutions; but at bottom they were humane and equitable, and no enemies to a just and reasonable obedience. The proof of which is, that, when they were governed with wisdom and moderation, as by Timoleon, they respected the authority of the laws and magistrates, and obeyed them with joy.

Hiero was no sooner entered upon office, and had the supreme authority confided to him, than he showed his detestation for the wretched policy of the tyrants, who, considering the citizens as their enemies, had no other thoughts than to weaken and intimidate them, and reposed their whole confidence in the foreign soldiers, by whom they were perpetually surrounded. He began by putting arms into the hands of the citizens, formed them with care in the exercises of war,

and employed them in preference to all others.

SECT. II.

Hiero's pacific reign. He dies very old, and much regretted by the people.

When Hiero attained the sovereign anthority, his great aim was to convince his subjects, less by his words than his actions, that he was infinitely remote from any design to the prejudice of their fortunes or liberty. He was not intent upon being leved. He looked upon himself less as their master than as their pretector and father. Before his reign the state had been divided by two factions, that of the citizens and that of the soldiers, whose differences, supported on both sides, with great animosity, had occasioned infinite misfortunes. He used his utmost endeavours to extinguish all remains of this division, and to eradicate from their minds all seeds of discord and misunderstanding. He seems to have succeeded wonderfully in that respect, as, during a reign of more than 50 years, no sedition or revolt disturbed the tranquillity of Syracuse.

What contributed most, without doubt, to this happy calm, was the particular care taken by Hiero to keep his subjects employed; to banish luxury and idleness, the parent of all vices, and the usual source of all seditions, from his dominions; to support and improve the natural fertility of his country; and to reflect honour upon agriculture, which he considered as the certain means to render his people happy, and to diffuse abundance throughout his kingdom. The cultivation of lands, indeed, besides employing an infinite number of hands, which would otherwise remain idle and unprofitable, draws into a country, by the exportation of grain, the riches

of the neighbouring nations, and turns their current into the houses of the people, by a commerce which is renewed every year, and which is the deserved fruit of their labour and industry. This is, and we cannot repeat it too often, what ought to be the peculiar attention of a wise government, as one of the most essential parts of wise and salutary policy,

though unhappily too much neglected. Hiero applied himself entirely to this end. He did not think it unworthy of the sovereignty to study and make himself thoroughly master of all the rules of agriculture. "He even gave himself the trouble to compose books upon that subject, of which we ought much to regret the loss. But he considered that object of his inquiries in a manner still more worthy of a king. The principal riches of the state, and the most certain fund of the prince's revenue, consisted in corn. He therefore believed it of the highest consequence, and what demanded his utmost care and application, to establish good order in that traffic, to render the condition of the husbandmen, of whom the greatest part of the people were composed, safe and happy; to ascertain the prince's dues, whose principal revenue rose from them; to obviate such disorders as might get ground to the prejudice of his institutions; and. to prevent the unjust vexations, which might possibly be attempted to be introduced in the sequel. To answer all these purposes, Hiero made regulations so wise, reasonable, equitable, and at the same time conformable to the people's and prince's interests, that they became in a manner the fundamental laws of the country, and were always observed as sacred and inviolable, not only in his reign, but in all succeeding times. When the Romans had subjected the city and dominions of Syracuse, they imposed no new tributes, and decreed , that all things should be disposed according to the laws of Hiero: in order that the Syracusans, in changing their masters, might have the consolation not to change their laws, and see themselves in some measure still governed by a prince, whose name alone was always dear to them, and rendered those laws exceedingly venerable.

I have observed that in Sicily the prince's principal revenue consisted in corn; the tenth being paid him. It was therefore his interest that the country should be well cultivated, that estimates should be made of the value of the lands, and that they should produce abundantly, as his revenue augmented in proportion to their fertility. The collectors of this tenth for the prince, which was paid in kind and

e Plin. l. xviii. e. 3.

è Decumas lege Hieronica semper vendendas censuerunt, ut iis juemidier ceset muneri illius functio, si clus regis, qui Siculis carissians fuic, non soluma instituta, commutato imperio, verum cham nomen remaneret. Gie. Orat. En Ver. de frum. n. 15,

not immoney, were called Decumani, that is to say, farmers of the tenths. Hiero, in the regulations he made upon this head, slid not neglect his own interests, which is the mark of a wise prince and good economist. He knew very well there was reason to apprehend, that the country people, who frequently consider the most legal and moderate imposts as intolerable burthens, might be tempted to defraud the prince of his dues. To spare them this temptation, he took such a just and exact precautions, that, whether the corn were in the ear, on the floor to be threshed, laid up in barns, or laden for carriage, it was not possible for the husbandman to secrete any part of it, or to defraud the collector of a single grain, without exposing himself to a severe penalty. Cicere acquaints us with these circumstances, at much length. But he adds also, that Hiero had taken the same precautions against the avidity of the collectors, to whom it was equally impossible to extort any thing from the husbandmen beyond the tenth. Hiero seems to have been very much against the husbandman's being drawn from his home upon any pretext whatsoever. In fact, says Cicero, inveighing against Verres. who gave them great trouble, by frequent and painful journeys, it is very hard and afflicting to the poor husbandmen, to be brought from their country to the city, from their plough to the bar, and from the care of tilling their lands to that of prosecuting law-suits. Miserum atque iniquum, ex agro homines traduci in forum, ab aratro ad subsellia, ab usu rerum rusticarum ad insolitam litem atque judicium. And besides, can they flatter themselves, let their cause be ever so just, that they shall carry it to the prejudice of the collectors? Judicio ut arator decumanum persequatur!

Can there be any thing more to a king's praise than what we have now said? Hiero might undertake wars, for he did not want valour, gain battles, make conquests, and extend the bounds of his dominions, and upon these accounts might pass for a hero in the opinion of the generality of men. But with how many taxes must he have loaded his people! How many husbandmen must he have torn from their lands! How much blood would the gaining of these victories have cost him! and of what emolument would they have been to the state! Hiero, who knew wherein true glory consists, placed his in governing his people with wisdom, and in making them happy. Instead of conquering new countries by the force of arims, he endeavoured to multiply his own in a manner by the caltivation of the lands, by rendering them more fertile

a Hieronica lex omnibus custoliis subjectum aratorem decumano tradit, ut neque in aegeribus, neque in arcis. neque in horreis, neque in amovenda, neque in aspertando frumento, grano uno posset acator, sine maxima posna, fraudare determanum. Cie. Otat. in Ver. de frum. n. 20.

δ Cie. Orat. in Ver. de frum. n. 14.

than they were, and in actually multiplying his people, wherein the real force and true riches of a state consist, and which can never fail to happen when the people of a com-

try reap a reasonable advantage from their labour.

It was in the second Punic war that Hiero gave distinguished proofs of his attachment to the Romans. As soon as he received advice of Hannibal's arrival in Italy, he went with his fleet, well equipped, to meet Tiberius Sempronius, who was arrived at Messina, to offer that consul his services, and to assure him, that, advanced in age as he was, he would show the same zeal for the Roman people as he had formerly done in his youth, in the first war against the Carthaginians. He took upon him to supply the consul's legions and the troops of the allies with corn and clothes at his own expense. Upon the news, received the same instant, of the advantage gained by the Roman over the Carthaginian fleet, the consul thanked the king for his advantageous offers, and

made no use of them at that time. b Hiero's inviolable fidelity towards the Romans, which is very remarkable in his character, appeared still more conspicuously after their defeat near the lake of Thrasymene. They had already lost three battles against Hannibal, each more unfortunate and more bloody than the other. Hiero, in that mournful conjuncture, sent a fleet laden with provisions to the port of Ostia. The Syracusan ambassadors. when introduced to the senate, told them, "That Hiero, "their master, had been as sensibly afflicted with their last "disgrace as if he had suffered it in his own person. That, "though he well knew that the grandeur of the Roman " people was almost more worthy of admiration in times of " adversity than after the most signal successes, he had sent "them all the aid that could be expected from a good and " faithful ally, and earnestly desired the senate would not re-" fuse to accept it. That they had particularly brought a "Victory of gold, that weighed 300 pounds, which the king " hoped they would vouchsafe to receive as a favourable au-"gury, and a pledge of the vows which he made for their "prosperity. That they had also imported 300,000 bushels " of wheat and 200,000 of barley; and that, if the Roman " people desired a greater quantity, Hiero would cause as " much as they pleased to be transported to whatever places "they should appoint. That he knew the Roman peo-" ple employed none in their armies but citizens and allies; "but that he had seen light-armed strangers in their camp. "That he had therefore sent them 1000 archers and sling-" ers, who might be opposed successfully to the Baliares and "Moors of Hannibal's army." They added to this aid a very salutary piece of advice, which was, that the practor, a A. M. 3786. Ant. J. C. 218. Liv. b mi. m 80, 51. 5 Liv. 1. mil. n. 27, 38.

who should be sent to command in Sicily, might despatch a fleet to Africa, in order to find the Carthaginians such employment in their own country as might put it out of their power by that diversion to send any succours to Hannibal.

The senate answered the king's ambassadors in very obliging and honourable terms. "That Hiero acted like a very "generous prince, and a most faithful ally: that, from the "time he had contracted an alliance with the Romans, his "attachment for them had been constant and unalterable; "in fine, that in all times and places he had powerfully and "magnificently succoured them : that the people had a " due sense of such generosity: that some cities of Italy had " already presented the Roman people with gold, who, af-"ter having expressed their gratitude, had not thought fit "to accept it: that the Victory was too favourable an au-" gury not to be received: that they would place her in the "Capitol, that is to say, in the temple of the most high Ju-" piter, in order that she might establish there her fixed and " lasting abode." All the corn and barley on board the ships, with the archers and slingers, were sent to the consuls.

Valerius Maximus a makes an observation here upon the noble and prudent liberality of Hiero; first in the generous design he forms, of presenting the Romans with 320 pounds weight of gold; then in the industrious precaution he uses to prevent them from refusing to accept it. He does not offer them that gold in specie; he knew the exceeding delicacy of the Roman people too well for that; but under the form of a Victory, which they dared not refuse, upon account of

the good omen it seemed to bring along with it.

It is extraordinary to see a prince, whose dominions were situate as Syracuse was in regard to Carthage, from which it had every thing to fear, at a time when Rome seemed near her ruin, continue unalterably faithful, and declare openly for her interests, not with standing all the dangers to which so daring a conduct exposed him. A more prudent politician, to speak the usual language, would perhaps have waited the event of a new action, and not have been so hasty to declare himself without necessity, and at his extreme peril. Such examples are the more estimable for being rare and almost unparalleled.

I do not know, however, whether, even in good policy, Hiero ought not to have acted as he did. It would have been the greatest of all misfortunes for Syracuse, had the Carthaginians entirely ruined, or even weakened the Romans too

C 2

e Trecenta milia modium tritici, et ducenta milia bordel, aurique ducenta et quadraginta pomlo urbi mostre muneri misit. Neque ignarus rescendisc majorum nostrorum, quod nollet accipere, in habitum id victories formavit, ut cos religione motos, munificentia sua uti cogeret; robuntate mittendi prius, iterum providentia exvendi ne remitteretur, liberalia.—Val. Max. l. iv. c. 5.

much. That city would have immediately felt all the weight of Carthage; as it was situated over against it, and lay highly convenient for strengthening its commerce, securing to it the empire of the sea, and establishing it firmly in Sicily, by the possession of the whole island. It would therefore have been imprudent to suffer such allies to be ruined by the Carthaginians, who would not have been the better friends to the Syracusans for having renounced the Romans by force. It was therefore a decisive stroke, to fly immediately to the aid of the Romans; and, as Syracuse would necessarily fall after Rome, it was absolutely requisite to hazard every thing either to save Rome or fall with her.

If the facts which history has preserved of so long and happy a reign are few, they do not give us the less idea of this prince, and ought to make us exceedingly regret the want of a more particular information concerning his actions.

a The sum of 100 talents, (100,000 crowns) which he sent to the Rhodians, and the presents he made them after the great earthquake, which laid waste their island and threw down their Colossus, are illustrious instances of his liberality and magnificence. The modesty with which his presents were attended infinitely exalts the value of them. He caused two statues to be erected in the public square, at Rhodes, representing the people of Syracuse placing a crown upon the head of the Rhodians; as if, says Polybius, Hiero, after having made that people such magnificent presents, far from assuming any vanity from his munificence, believed himself their debtor upon that very account. And indeed the liberality and beneficence of a prince to strangers is rewarded, with interest, in the pleasure they give to himself and the glory he acquires by them.

There is a pastoral of Theocritus (Idyll. 16.) which bears the name of the king we speak of, wherein the poet seems tacitly to reproach that prince with paying very ill for the verses made in honour of him. But the mean manner in which he claims, as it were, a reward for the verses he meditates leaves room to conclude, that the imputation of avarice falls with more justice upon the poet than upon the prince, distinguished and esteemed, as we have seen, from

his liberality.

b It is to Hiero's just taste and singular attention to every thing that concerned the public good that Syracuse was indebted for those amazing machines of war, of which we shall soon see it make so great a use, when besieged by the Romans. Though that prince seemed to devote his cares entirely to the tranquillity and domestic affairs of the kingdom, he did not neglect those of war; convinced that the

surest means to preserve the peace of his dominins was to hold himself always in readiness to make war upon unjust neighbours who should attempt to disturb it. He knew how to profit by the advantage he possessed of having in his dominions the most learned geometrician the world had ever produced; it is plain I mean Archimedes. He was illustrious, not only by his great ability in geometry, but his birth, as he was Hiero's relation. Sensible alone to the pleasures of the mind, and highly averse to the hurry and tumult of business and government, he devoted himself solely to the study of a science, whose sublime speculations on truths purely intellectual and spiritual, and entirely distinct from matter, have such attraction with the learned of the first rank as scarcely leaves them at liberty to apply themselves to any other objects.

Hiero had, however, sufficient influence over Archimedes to engage him to descend from those lofty speculations to the practice of those mechanics, which depend on the hand, but are disposed and directed by the head. He pressed him continually, not to employ his art always in soaring after immaterial and intellectual objects, but to bring it down to sensible and corporeal things, and to render his reasonings in some measure more evident and familiar to the generality of mankind, by joining them experimentally with things of use.

Archimedes frequently conversed with the king, who always heard him with great attention and extreme pleasure. One day, when he was explaining to him the wonderful effects of the powers of motion, he proceeded to demonstrate: "That with a certain given power any weight whatsoever "might be moved." And, applauding himself afterwards on the force of his demonstration, he ventured to boast that if there were another world besides this we inhabit, by going to that he could remove this at pleasure. The king, surprised and delighted, desired him to put his position in execution, by removing some great weight with a small force.

Archimedes, preparing to satisfy the just and rational curiosity of his kinsman and friend, chose out one of the galleys in the port, caused it to be drawn on shore with great labour, and by abundance of men. He then ordered its usual lading to be put on board, and besides that, as many men as it could hold. Afterwards, placing himself at some distance, and siting at his ease, without trouble, or exerting his strength in the least, by only moving with his hand the end of a machine, which he had provided with numerous cords and pullies, he drew the galley to him upon the land, with as much ease and, as steadily as if it had swum upon the water.

The king, upon the sight of so prodigious an effect of the powers of motion, was entirely astonished; and judging from

that experiment of the efficacy of the art, he earnestly solicited Archimedes to make several sorts of machines and battering engines for sieges and attacks, as well for the defence

as assault of places.

It has been sometimes asked, whether the sublime knowledge of which we speak be necessary to a king; and if the study of arts and sciences ought to form a part of the education of a young prince? What we read here demonstrates their utility. If king Hiero had wanted taste and curiosity, and employed himself solely in his pleasures. Archimedes had remained inactive in his closet, and all his extraordinary science been of no advantage to his country. What treasures of useful knowledge lie buried in obscurity, and in a manner hid under the earth, because princes set no value upon learned men, and consider them as persons useless to the state. . But when, in their youth, they have imbibed some small tincture of arts and sciences, for the study of princes ought to extend no farther in that point, they esteem such as distinguish themselves by their learning, sometimes converse with them, and hold them in honour, and, by so glorious a protection, make way for valuable discoveries, of which the state soon reaps the advantage. Syracuse had this obligation to Hiero, which, without doubt, was the effect of his excellent education: for he had been bred with uncommon care and attention.

What has been said hitherto of Archimedes, and what we shall presently add with respect to those admirable machines of war which were used during the seige of Syracuse, shows how wrong it is to despise those sublime and speculative sciences, whose only objects are simple and abstract ideas. It is true, that all mere geometrical or algebraical speculations do not relate to useful things. But it is also as true, that most of those which have not that relation, conduct or refer to those that have. They may appear unprofitable, as long as they do not deviate, if I may so say, from this intellectual world; but the mixed mathematics, which descend to matter, and consider the motions of the stars, the perfect knowledge of navigation, the art of drawing remote objects near by the assistance of telescopes, the increase of the powers of motion, the nice exactitude of the balance, and other similar objects, become more easy of access, and in a manner familiarize themselves with the vulgar. The labour of Archimedes was long obscure, and perhaps contemned, because he confined himself to simple and barren speculations. Ought we therefore to conclude that it was useless and unprofitable? It was from that very source of knowledge, buried till then in obscurity, that shot forth those brilliant lights and wonderful discoveries which displayed from their birth a sensible and manifest utility, and inspired the Romans with astonish-

ment and despair when they besieged Syracuse.

Hiero was great and magnificent in all things, in building palaces, arsenals, and temples. He caused an infinite number of ships of all burthens to be built for the exportation of corn; a traffic in which almost the whole wealth of the island consisted. ^a We are told of a galley built by his order, under the direction of Archimedes, which was reckoned one of the most famous structures of antiquity. It was a whole year in building. Hiero passed whole days amongst the workmen, to animate them by his presence.

This ship had 20 benches of oars. The enormous pile was fastened together on all sides with huge nails of copper,

which weighed each ten pounds and upwards.

The inside had in it three galleries, or corridors, the lowest of which led to the hold by a descent of stairs, the second

to apartments, and the first to soldiers' lodgings.

On the right and left side of the middle gallery there were to the number of 30 apartments, in each of which were four beds for men. The apartment for the officers and seamen had 15 beds, and three great rooms for eating; the last of which that was at the stern, served for a kitchen. All the floors of these apartments were inlaid with small stories, in different colours, taken from the Iliad of Homer. The ciclings, windows, and all the other parts, were finished with wonderful art, and embellished with all kinds of ornaments.

In the uppermost gallery, there was a gymnasium, or place of exercise, and walks, proportionate to the magnitude of the ship. In them were gardens and plants of all kinds, disposed in wonderful order. Pipes, some of hardened clay and others of lead, conveyed water all round to refresh them. There were also arbours of ivy and vines, that had their roots in great vessels filled with earth. These vessels were watered in the same manner as the gardens. The

arbours served to shade the walks,

After these came the apartment of Venus, with three beds. This was floored with agates and other precious stones, the finest that could be found in the island. The walls and roof were of cypress wood. The windows were adorned with ivory, paintings, and small statues. In another apartment was a library, at the top of which, on the cutside, was fixed a sun-dial.

There was also an apartment, with three beds for a bath, in which were three great brazen coppers, and a bathing-vessel made of a single stone of various colours. This vessel contained two hundred and fifty quarts. At the ship's

quarts.

All round the ship on the outside were Atlasses, of six cubits, or nine feet, in height, which supported the sides of the ship; these Atlasses were at equal distances from each other. The ship was adorned on all sides with paintings, and had eight towers proportioned to its size; two at the head, two at the stern, and four in the middle, of equal dimensions. Upon these towers were parapets, from which stones might be discharged upon the ships of an enemy, that should approach too near. Each tower was guarded by four young men completely armed, and two archers. The inside was filled with stones and arrows.

Upon the side of the vessel, well strengthened with planks. was a kind of rampart, on which was an engine to discharge stones, made by Archimedes: it threw a stone of 300 weight. and an arrow of 12 cubits, (18 feet,) the distance of a stra-

dium, or 125 paces, from it.

The ship had three masts, at each of which were two machines to discharge stones. There also were the hooks and masses of lead to throw upon such as approached. The whole ship was surrounded with a rampart of iron to keep off those who should attempt to board it. All around were iron grapplings (corvi), which, being thrown by machines, grappled the vessels of the enemy, and drew them close to the ship, from whence it was easy to destroy them. each of the sides were sixty young men completely armed, and as many about the masts, and at the machines for throwing stones.

Though the hold of this ship was extremely deep, one man sufficed for clearing it of all water, with a machine made in the nature of a screw, invented by Archimedes. An Athenian poet of that name made an epigram upon this superb vessel, for which he was well paid. Hiero sent him 1000 medimni of corn as a reward, and caused them to be carried to the port of Pirzus. The medimnus, according to father Montfaucon, is a measure that contains six bushels. This epigram is come down to us. The value of verse was

known at that time in Syracuse.

Hiero having found that there was no port in Sicily capable of containing this vessel, except some where it could not lie at anchor without danger, resolved to make a present of it to king a Ptolemy, and sent it to Alexandria. There was at that time a great dearth of corn throughout all Egypt.

Several other transports of less burthen attended this great Three hundred thousand quarters of corn were put on board them, with 10,000 great earthen jars of salted fish,

a There is reason to believe this was Ptolemy Philadelphus.

20,000 quintals, (or 2,000,000 pounds,) of salt meat, 20,000 bundles of different clothes, without including the provisions

for the ship's crews and officers.

To avoid too much prolixity, I have retrenched some part of the description which Athenaus has left us of this great ship. I could have wished, that, to have given us a better idea of it, he had mentioned the exact dimensions of it. Had he added a word upon the benches of oars, it would have cleared up and determined a question, which, without it, must for ever remain doubtful and obscure.

Hiero's fidelity was put to a very severe trial, after the bloody defeat of the Romans in the battle of Canna, which was followed by an almost universal defection of their allies.

But even the laying waste of his dominions by the Carthaginian troops, which their fleet had landed in Sicily, was not capable of shaking his resolution. . He was only afflicted to see that the contagion had spread even to his own family. He had a son named Gelon, who married Nereis, the daughter of Pyrrhus, by whom he had several children, and amonest others Hieronymus, of whom we shall soon speak. Gelon. despising his father's great age, and setting no value on the alliance of the Romans after their last diagrace at Canna, had declared openly for the Carthaginians. He had already armed the multitude, and solicited the allies of Syracuse to join him; and would be perhaps have occasioned great trouble in Sicily, if a sudden and unexpected death had not inter; vened. It happened so opportunely, that his fasher was suspected of having promoted it. . He did not survive his son long, and died at the age of 90 years, infinitely regretted by his people, after having reigned 54 years.

ARTICLE II.

SECT. I.

Hieronymus, grandson of Hiero, succeeds him. He is killed in a constiracu.

The death of Hiero occasioned great revolutions in Sicily. The kingdom was fallen into the hands of Hieronymus, his grandson, a young d prince, incapable of making a wise use of his independence, and far from possessing strength to resist the seducing allurements of sovereign power. Hiero's

a Liv. L xxiii. n. 30, b Movissorque in Sinilia sui, aisi mera, ades opportum ut patrem quoque sui picione adspergenet, armentem eum muhitudinem, sollistiantemque socias, absempelaset. htv.
c A. M. 20%. A. J. C. 315.
d Purrum, viz dam libertatem, nedum dominationem, modice laturem. 14v.

apprehensions, that the flourishing condition in which he left his kingdom would soon change under an infant king, suggested to him the thought and desire of restoring their liberty to the Syracusans. But his two daughters opposed · that design with all their influence, from the hope, that the young prince would have only the title of king, and that they should have all the authority, in conjunction with their husbands, Andranodorus and Zoippus, who were to hold the first rank amongst his guardians a. It was not easy for an old man of 90 to hold out against the caresses and arts of those two women, who besieged him day and night, to preserve the freedom of his mind in the midst of their pressing and assiduous insinuations, and to sacrifice with courage the interests of his family to those of the public.

To prevent as far as possible the evils he foresaw, he appointed him 15 guardians, who were to form his council; and carnestly desired them, at his death, never to depart from the alliance with the Romans, to which he had inviolably adhered for 50 years, and to teach the young prince to tread in his steps, and to follow the principles in which he had been

educated till then.

The king dying after these arrangements, the guardians whom he had appointed for his grandson immediately summoned the assembly, presented the young prince to the people, and caused the will to be read. A small number of people, expressly placed to applaud it, clapped their hands, and raised acclamations of joy, All the rest, in a consternation equal to that of a family who have lately lost a good father. kept a mournful silence, which sufficiently expressed their grief for their recent loss, and their apprehension of what was to come. b His funeral was afterwards solemnized, and more honoured by the sorrow and tears of his subjects than the care and regard of his relations for his memory.

Andranodorus's first care was to remove all the other guardians, by telling them, roundly, the prince was of age to

govern for himself.

He was at that time nearly 15 years old. So that Andranodorus, being the first to renounce the guardianship held by him in common with many colleagues, united in his own person all their power. The arrangements made by the wisest princes at their deaths are often little regarded, and

seldom executed afterwards.

The best and most moderate prince in the world, suca Non facile crat uonagesimum jam agenti annum, circumesso dies noctesque muliebribus blanditiis, liberare animam, et convertere ad publicam privata cu-

ram. Liv.
b Funus sit regium, magis amore civium et caritate, quam cura suorum ce-

c Vix quidem ulli bono moderatoque regi facilis erat favor apud Syraeusanos, ocodenti muta caritati Hicronis. Verum calurrero Hicronymus, velut stat ceeding a king so well beloved by his subjects as Hiero had been, would have found it very difficult to console them for the loss they had sustained. But Hieronymus, as if he strove by his vices to make him still more regretted, no sooner ascended the throne than he made the people sensible how much all things were altered. Neither king Hiero, nor Gelon his son, during so many years, had ever distinguished themselves from the other citizens by their habits, or any other ornaments intimating pride. Hieronymus was presently seen in a purple robe, with a diadem on his head, and surrounded by a troop of armed guards. Sometimes he affected to imitate Dionysius the tyrant, in coming out of his palace in a chariot drawn by four white horses. All the a rest of his conduct was suitable to this equipage: a visible contempt for all the world; haughtiness and disdain in hearing; an affectation of saying disobliging things; so difficult of access, that not only strangers but even his guardians could scarcely approach him; a refinement of taste in discovering new methods of excess; a cruelty so enormous as to extinguish all sense of humanity in him: this odious disposition of the young king terrified the people to such a degree, that even some of his guardians, to escape his cruelty, either put themselves to death, or condemned themselves to voluntary banishment.

Only three men, Andranodorus and Zoippus, both Hiero's sons-in-law, and Thraso, had a great freedom of access to the young king. He listened a little more to them than to the others; but, as the two first openly declared for the Carthaginians and the latter for the Romans, that difference of sentiments, and very warm disputes which were frequently the consequence of it, drew upon them that prince's at-

tention.

About this time a conspiracy against the life of Hieronymus happened to be discovered. One of the principal conspirators, named Theodotus, was accused. Being put to the torture, he confessed the crime as far as it regarded himself, but all the violence of the most cruel torments could not make him betray his accomplices. At length, as if no longer able to support the pains inflicted on him, he accused the king's best friends, though innocent, amongst whom he named Thraso, as the ringleader of the whole enterprise; adding, that they should never have engaged in it, if a man of his credit had not been at their head. The zeal he had always expressed for the Roman interests rendered the evi-

vitis desiderabilem efficere vellet avum, primo statim conspectu, omnia quam diparia canent ortendit. Liv-

a Hune tam superbum apparatum habitumque convenientes sequelantur contemptus omnium hominum, superba aures, contumetions dicts, rara aditus, am alemis seado sed unterbus ctuam; i hind nes neve, inhumana crudet cas. laiv.

dence probable, and he was accordingly put to death. Not one of the accomplices, during their companion's being tortured, either fled or concealed himself, so much they relied upon the fidelity of Theodotus, who had the fortitude to keep

the secret inviolable.

The death of Thraso, who was the sole support of the alliance with the Romans, left the field open to the partisans of Carthage. Hieronymus despatched ambassadors to Hannibal, who sent back a young Carthaginian officer of illustrious birth, named also Hannibal, with Hippocrates and Epicydes, natives of Carthage, but descended from the Syracusans by their father. After the treaty with Hieronymus was concluded, the young officer returned to his general; the two others continued with the king by Hannibal's permission. The conditions of the treaty were, that, after having driven the Romans out of Sicily, of which they fully assured themselves, the river Himera, which almost divides the island, should be the boundary of their respective dominions. Hieronymus, puffed up by the praises of his flatterers, even demanded, some time after, that all Sicily should be given up to him, leaving the Carthaginians Italy for their part. The proposal appeared idle and rash, but Hannibal gave very little attention to it, having no other view at that time than of drawing off the young king from the party of the Romans.

Upon the first rumour of this treaty, Appius, prætor of Sicily, sent ambassadors to Hieronymus to renew the alliance made by his grandfather with the Romans. That proud prince received them with great contempt; asking them, with an air of raillery and insult, what had passed at the battle of Cannæ; that Hannibal's ambassadors had related incredible things respecting it; that he was happy in an opportunity of knowing the truth from their mouths, that he might thence determine upon the choice of his allies. The Romans made answer, that they would return to him, when he had learnt to treat ambassadors seriously and with respect; and, after having cautioned rather than desired him

not to change sides too rashly, they withdrew.

At length his cruelty, and the other vices to which he blindly abandoned himself, drew upon him an unfortunate end. Those who had formed the conspiracy mentioned before pursued their scheme; and, having found a favourable opportunity for the execution of their enterprise, killed him in the city of the Leontines, on a journey he made from Sy-

racuse into the country.

Here is a sensible instance of the difference between a king and a tyrant; and that it is not in guards or arms that the security of a prince consists, but in the affection of his

jects. Hiero, from being convinced that those who have the laws in their hands for the government of the people ought always to govern themselves by the laws, behaved in such a manner, that it might be said the law and not Hiero reigned. He believed himself rich and powerful for no other end than to do good and to render others happy. He had no occasion to take precautions for the security of his life: he had always the surest guard about him, the love of his people: and Syracuse was afraid of nothing so much as of losing him. Hence he was lamented at his death as the common father of his country. Not only their mouths but hearts were long after filled with his name, and incessantly blessed his memory. Hieronymus, on the contrary, who had no other rule of conduct than violence, regarded all other men as born solely for himself, and valued himself upon governing them not as subjects but slaves, led the most wretched life in the world, if to live were to pass his days in continual apprehension and terror. As he trusted nobody, nobody placed any confidence in him. Those who were nearest his person were the most exposed to his suspicions and cruelty, and thought they had no other security for their own lives than by putting an end to his. Thus ended a reign of short duration, but abounding with disorders, injustice, and oppression.

a Appius, who foresaw the consequence of his death, gave the senate advice of all that had passed, and took the necessary precautions to preserve that part of Sicily which belonged to the Romans. They, on their side, perceiving the war in Sicily was likely to become important, sent Marcellus thiers, who had been appointed consul with Fabius in the beginning of the fifth year of the second Punic war, and had distinguished himself gloriously by his successes against Han-

nibal.

When Hieronymus was killed, the soldiers, less out of affection for him than a certain natural respect for their kings, had thoughts at first of avenging his death upon the conspirators. But the grateful name of liberty, by which they were flattered, and the hope that was given them of the division of the tyrant's treasures amongst them, and of additional pay, with the recital of his horrid crimes and shameful excesses, all together appeased their first heat, and changed their disposition in such a manner, that they left without interment the body of that prince, for whom they had just before expressed so warm a regret.

As soon as the death of Hieronymus was known at Syracuse, Andranodorus seized the Isle, which was part of the city, with the citadel, and such other places as were most proper for his defence in it; putting good garrisons into them.

Theodotus and Sosis, heads of the conspiracy, having left their accomplices with the army to keep the soldiers quiet, arrived soon after at the city. They made themselves masters of the quarter Achradina, where by showing the tyrant's bloody robe, with his diadem, to the people, and exhorting them to take arms for the defence of their liberty, they soon

saw themselves at the head of a numerous body. The whole city was in confusion. The next day, at sunrise, all the people, armed and unarmed, ran to the quarter Achradina, where the senate was holden, which had neither assembled nor been consulted upon any affair since Hiero's death. Polyanus, one of the senators, spoke to the people with great freedom and moderation. He represented," that, " having experienced the indignities and miseries of slavery, "they were most sensibly affected with them; but that, as "to the evils occasioned by civil discord, they had rather " heard them spoken of by their fathers than been acquainted " with them themselves; that he commended their readiness " in taking arms, and should praise them still more if they "did not proceed to use them till the last extremity: that at " present it was his advice to send deputies to Andranodorus, " and to let him know he must submit to the senate, open "the gates of the Isle, and withdraw his garrisons: that, if " he persisted in his usurpation, it would be necessary to treat "him with more rigour than Hieronymus had experienc-" ed."

This deputation at first made some impression upon him: whether he still retained a respect for the senate and was moved with the unanimous concurrence of the citizens, or whether, the best fortified part of the isle having been taken from him by treachery and surrendered to the Syracusans, that loss gave him just apprehensions. But a his wife Demarata. Hiero's daughter, a haughty and ambitious princess, having taken him aside, put him in mind of the famous saying of Dionysius the tyrant, "That it was never proper to "quit the saddle," (i. e. the tyranny,) "till pulled off the " horse by the heels: that a great fortune might be renounc-" ed in a moment; but that it would cost abundance of time " and pains to attain it: that it was therefore necessary to " endeavour to gain time; and, whilst he amused the senate "by ambiguous answers, to treat privately with the soldiers at Leontium, whom it would be easy to bring over to his " interest by the attraction of the king's treasures in his pos-" session."

Andranodorus did not entirely reject this counsel, nor

a Sed evocatum eum ab legatis Demarata uzor, filia Hieronis, inflata adhuc regiis animis ac mulichri spiritu. admonet sæpe ururpatæ Dionysii tyranni vocis: quæ, pedibus tractum, non insidentem equo, relinquere tyrannidem dixerri distance.

think proper to follow it without reserve. He chose a mean between both. He promised to submit to the senate, in expectation of a more favourable opportunity; and the next day, having thrown open the gates of the Isle, repaired to the quarter Achradina; and there, after having excused his delay and resistance, from the fear he had entertained of being involved in the tyrant's punishment, as his uncle, he declared that he was come to put his person and interests into the hands of the senate. Then, turning towards the tyrant's murderers, and addressing himself to Theodotus and Sosis; "You have done," (said he) "a memorable ac-"tion. But believe me your glory is only begun, and has not " yet attained the height of which it is capable. If you do " not take care to establish peace and union among the citi-" zens, the state is in great danger of expiring, and of being "destroyed at the very moment she begins to taste the blessings of liberty." After this discourse, he laid the keys of the Isle and of the king's treasures at their feet. The whole city was highly rejoiced on this occasion, and the temples were thronged during the rest of the day with infinite numbers of people, who went thither to return thanks to the gods for so happy a change of affairs.

The next day, the senate being assembled according to the ancient custom, magistrates were appointed, amongst whom Andranodorus was elected one of the first, with Theodotus and Sosis, and some others of the conspirators

who were absent.

On the other side, Hippocrates and Epicydes, whom Hieronymus had sent, at the head of 2000 men, to endeavour to excite troubles in the cities which continued to adhere to the Romans, seeing themselves, upon the news of the tyrant's death, abandoned by the soldiers under their command, returned to Syracuse, where they demanded to be escorted in safety to Hannibal, having no longer any business in Sicily after the death of him to whom they had been sent by that general. The Syracusans were not sorry to part with those two strangers, who were of a turbulent factious disposition, and well experienced in military affairs. There is in most affairs a decisive moment, which never returns after having been once let slip. The negligence in assigning the time for their departure gave them an opportunity of insinuating themselves into the favour of the soldiers, who esteemed them upon account of their abilities, and of setting them against the senate and the better inclined part of the citizens.

Andranodorus, whose wife's ambition would never let him rest, and who, till then, had covered his designs with smooth dissimulation, believing it a proper time for disclosing them, canspired with Themistus, Gelon's son-in-law, to sieze the

sovereignty. He communicated his views to a comedian named Ariston, from whom he kept nothing secret. That profession was not at all dishonourable among the Greeks, and was exercised by persons of no ignoble condition. Ariston believing it his duty, as it really was, to sacrifice his friend to his country, discovered the conspiracy. Andranodorus and Themistus were immediately killed, by order of the other magistrates, as they entered the senate. The people rose, and threatened to revenge their deaths, but were deterred from it by the sight of the dead bodies of the two conspirators, which were thrown out of the senate-house. They were then informed of their pernicious designs; to which all the misfortunes of Sicily were ascribed, rather than to the wickedness of Hieronymus, who, being only a youth, had acted entirely by their coansels. They insinuated, that his guardians and tutors had reigned in his name; that they ought to have been cut off before Hieronymus, or at least with him; that impunity had carried them on to commit new crimes, and induced them to aspire to the tyranny: that, not being able to succeed in their design by force, they had employed dissimulation and perfidy. That neither favours and honours had been capable of overcoming the wicked disposition of Andranodorus, nor the electing him one of the supreme magistrates amongst the deliverers of their country; him, who was the declared enemy of liberty: that, as to the rest, they had been inspired with their ambition of reigning by the princesses of the blood-royal, whom they had married, the one Hiero's, the other Gelon's, daughter.

At those words, the whole assembly cried out, that not one of them ought to be suffered to live, and that it was necessary to extirpate entirely the race of the tyrants, without suffering any vestige to remain. ^a Such is the nature of the multitude. It either abjectly abandons itself to slavery or domineers with insolence. But, with regard to liberty, which holds the mean betwixt those extremes, it neither knows how to be without it or to use it, and has but too many flatterers always ready to enter into its passions, inflame its rage, and hurry it on to excessive violences and the most inhuman cruelties, to which it is but too much inclined of itself; as was the case at this time. At the request of the magistrates, which was almost sooner accepted than proposed, they decreed that the royal family should be entirely destroyed.

Demarata, the daughter of Hiero, and Harmonia, Gelon's daughter, the first married to Andranodorus and the other to Themistus, were killed first. From thence they

a Hec natura multitudinis est; aut servit humiliter, aut superbe dominatur: libertatera, que media est, net spernere modice. net habere soiunt. Et non ferme desunt irarum indulgentes ministri, qui avidos atque intemperantes phenorum animos ad sanguinem et cades irritent. Liv.

went to the house of Heraclea, wife of Zoippus; who, having been sent on an embassy to Ptolemy, king of Egypt, remained there in voluntary banishment to avoid being witness of the miseries of his country. Having been apprized that they were coming to her, that unfortunate princess had taken refuge with her two daughters in the most retired part of her house, near her household gods. There, when the assassins arrived, with her hair loose and dishevelled, her face bathed in tears, and in a condition most proper to excite compassion, she conjured them, in a faultering voice, interrupted with sighs, in the name of Hiero, her father, and Gelon, her brother, " Not to involve an innocent princess in the "guilt and misfortunes of Hieronymus. She represented to "them, that her husband's banishment had been to her the " sole fruit of that reign: that, not having had any share in " the fortunes and designs of her sister Demarata, she ought " to have none in her punishment. Besides, what was there " to fear, either from her, in the forlorn condition and almost " widowhood to which she was reduced, or from her daugh-"ters, unhappy orphans, without credit or support? That, "if the royal family were become so odious to Syracuse that " it could not bear the sight of them, they might be banished " to Alexandria, the wife to her husband, the daughters to "their father." When she saw them inflexible to her remonstrances, forgetting what concerned herself, she implored them at least to save the lives of the princesses her daughters, both of an age which inspires the most inveterate and furious of enemies with compassion: but her discourse made no impression upon the minds of those barbarians. Having torn her in a manner from the arms of her household gods, they stabbed her in the sight of her two daughters, and soon after cut their throats, already stained and covered with the blood of their mother. What was still more deplorable in their destiny was, that, immediately after their death, an order from the people came for sparing their lives.

From compassion, the people in a moment proceeded to rage and fury against those who had been so hasty in the execution, and had not left them time for reflection or repentance. They demanded that magistrates should be nominated in the room of Andranodorus and Themistus. They were a long time in suspense upon this choice. At length, somebody in the crowd of the people happened to name Epicydes, another immediately mentioned Hippocrates. Those two persons were demanded with so much ardour by the multitude, which consisted of citizens and soldiers, that the senate

could not prevent their being created.

The new magistrates did not immediately discover the design they had, of re-instating Syracuse in the interest

Hannibal. But they had seen with pain the measures which had been taken before they were in office. For, immediately after the re-establishment of liberty, ambassadors had been sent to Appius, to propose renewing the alliance which had been broken by Hieronymus. He had referred them to Marcellus, who was lately arrived in Sicily, with an authority superior to his own. Marcellus, in his turn, sent deputies to the magistrates of Syracuse, to treat of peace.

Upon arriving there, they found the state of affairs much altered. Hippocrates and Epicydes, at first by secret practices, and afterwards by open complaints, had inspired every body with great aversion for the Romans; giving out, that designs were formed for putting Syracuse into their hands. The behaviour of Appius, who had approached the entrance of the port with his fleet, to encourage the party in the Roman interest, strengthened those suspicions and accusations so much, that the people ran tumultuously to prevent the Romans from landing, in case they should have that design.

In this trouble and confusion it was thought proper to summon the assembly of the people. In this meeting the opinions differed very much; and the heat of the debate giving reason to fear some sedition, Apollonides, one of the principal senators, made a discourse very suitable to the present situation of affairs. He intimated, "that never city was nearer " its destruction or preservation than Syracuse actually was " at that time; that, if they all with unanimous consent should " join either the Romans or Carthaginians, their condition "would be happy; that, if they were divided, the war " would neither be more warm nor more dangerous between "the Romans and Carthaginians than between the Syracu-" sans themselves against each other, as both parties must "necessarily have, within the circumference of their own " walls, their own troops, armies, and generals: that it was " therefore absolutely requisite to make their agreement and " union amongst themselves their sole care and application; "and that to know which of the two alliances was to be " preferred was not now the most important question: that " for the rest, the authority of Hiero, in his opinion, ought to " prevail over that of Hieronymus; and that the amity of "the Romans, happily experienced for 50 years together, " seemed preferable to that of the Carthaginians, upon which "they could not much rely for the present, and with which "they had as little reason to be satisfied with regard to the " past." He added a last motive of no mean force, which was, "that, in declaring against the Romans, they would " have the war immediately upon their hands; whereas, on " the side of Carthage, the danger was remote."

The less passionate this discourse appeared, the more ef-

fect it had. It induced them to desire the opinion of the several bodies of the state, and the principal officers of the troops, as well natives as foreigners, were requested to confer together. The affair was long discussed with great warmth. At length, as it appeared, that there was no present means for supporting the war against the Romans, a peace with them was resolved, and ambassadors sent to conclude it.

Some days after this resolution had been taken, the Leontines sent to demand aid of Syracuse, for the defence of their This deputation seemed to come very seasonably for ridding the city of a turbulent unruly multitude, and removing their no less dangerous leaders. Four thousand men were ordered to march under the command of Hippocrates, of whom they were glad to be rid, and who was not sorry himself for this opportunity they gave him to embroil affairs. For, he no sooner arrived upon the frontier of the Roman province than he plundered it, and cut in pieces a body of troops sent by Appius to its defence. Marcellus complained to the Syracusans of this act of hostility, and demanded, that this stranger should be banished from Sicily, with his brother Epicydes; who, having repaired about the same time to Leontium, had endeavoured to embroil the inhabitants with the people of Syracuse, by exhorting them to resume their liberty as well as the Syracusans. The city of the Leontines was dependant on Syracuse, but pretended at this time to throw off the yoke, and to act independently of the Syracusans as an entirely free city. Hence, when the Syracusans sent to complain of the hostilities committed against the Romans, and to demand the expulsion of the two Carthaginian brothers who were the authors of them, the Leontines replied, that they had not empowered the Syracusans to make peace for them with the Romans.

The deputies of Syracuse related to Marcellus this answer from the Leontines, who were no longer at the disposal of their city, and left him at liberty to declare war against them, without any infraction of the treaty made with them. He marched immediately to Leontium, and made himself master of it at the first attack. Hippocrates and Epicydes fled. All the deserters found in the place, to the number of 2000, were put to the sword; but as soon as the city was taken, all the Leontines and other soldiers were spared, and even every thing taken from them was restored, except what was lost in the first tumult of a city carried by storm.

Eight thousand troops, sent by the magistrates of Syracuse to the aid of Marcellus, met a man on their march, who gave them a false account of what had passed at the taking of Leontium; exaggerating with artful malice the cruelty of the Romans, who, he falsely affirmed, had put all the inter-

bitants to the sword, as well as the troops sent thither by the

Syracusans.

This artful falsehood, which they took no steps to ascertain, inspired them with compassion for their companions. They expressed their indignation by their murmurs. Hippocrates and Epicydes, who were before well known to these troops, appeared at the very instant of this trouble and tumult, and put themselves under their protection, not having any other resource. They were received with joy and acclamations. The report soon reached the rear of the army, where the commanders, Dinomenes and Sosis, were. When they were informed of the cause of the tumult, they advanced hastily, blamed the soldiers for having received Hippocrates and Epicydes, the enemies of their country, and gave order for their being seized and bound. The soldiers opposed this with great menaces, and the two generals sent expresses to Syracuse to inform the senate of what had passed.

In the mean time, the army continued its march towards Mægara, and upon the way met a courier prepared by Hippocrates, who was charged with a letter, which seemed to be written by the magistrates of Syracuse to Marcellus. They praised him for the slaughter he had made at Leontium, and exhorted him to treat all the mercenary soldiers in the same manner, in order that Syracuse might at length be restored to its liberty. The reading of this forged letter enraged the mercenaries, of whom this body of troops was almost entirely composed. They were for falling upon the few Syracusans amongst them, but were prevented from that violence by Hippocrates and Epicydes; not from motives of pity or humanity, but that they might not entirely lose their hopes of re-entering Syracuse. They sent a man thither, whom they had gained by bribes, who related the storming of Leontium conformably to the first account. Those reports were favourably received by the multitude, who cried out, that the gates should be shut against the Romans. Hippocrates and Epicydes arrived about the same time before the city, which they entered, partly by force and partly by the intelligence they had within it. They killed the magis-trates and took possession of the city. The next day the slaves were made free, the prisoners set at liberty, and Hippocrates and Epicydes elected into the highest offices, in a tumultuous assembly. Syracuse, in this manner, after a short glimpse of liberty, sank again into its former slavery.

SECT. II.

Marcellus besieges Syracuse. The dreadful machines of Archimedes. He is killed.

a Affairs being in this state, Marcellus thought proper to a A. M. 3790. Ant. J. C. 314. Liv. l. xxiv. n. 33, 34. Plut. in Marcel. p. 305-307. Polyh. l. viii. p. 515-518.

quit the country of the Leontines, and advanced towards Syracuse. When he was near it, he sent deputies to let the inhabitants know, that he came to restore liberty to the Syracusans, and not with intent to make war upon them. They were not permitted to enter the city. Hippocrates and Epicydes went out to meet them; and, having heard their proposals, replied haughtily, that, if the Romans intended to besiege their city, they should soon be made sensible of the difference between attacking Syracuse and attacking Leontium. Marcellus therefore determined to besiege the place by sea and land a; by land on the side of Hexapyla, and by sea on that of the quarter Achradina, the walls of which were washed by the waves

He gave Appius the command of the land-forces, and reserved that of the fleet to himself. It consisted of 60 galleys of five benches of oars, which were full of soldiers armed with bows, slings, and darts, to scour the walls. There were a great number of other vessels, laden with all

sorts of machines, used in attacking places.

The Romans carrying on their attacks at two different places, Syracuse was in great consternation, and apprehended that nothing could oppose so terrible a power and such mighty efforts. And it had indeed been impossible to have resisted them, without the assistance of one single man, whose wonderful industry was every thing to the Syracusans; this was Archimedes. He had taken care to supply the walls with all things necessary to a good defence. As soon as his machines began to play on the land-side, they discharged upon the infantry all sorts of darts, and stones of enormous weight, which flew with so much noise, force, and rapidity, that nothing could withstand their shock. They beat down and dashed to pieces all before them, and occasioned a terrible disorder in the ranks of the besiegers.

Marcellus succeeded no better on the side of the sea. Archimedes had disposed his machines in such a manner as to throw darts to any distance. Though the enemy laid far from the city, he reached them with his larger and more forcible balistæ and catapultæ. When they overshot their mark, he had smaller proportioned to the distance; which put the Romans into such confusion, as made them incapa-

ble of attempting any thing.

This was not the greatest danger. Archimedes had placed lofty and strong machines behind the walls, which suddenly letting fall vast beams, with an immense weight at the end of them, upon the ships, sank them to the bottom. Besides this, he caused an iron grapple to be let out by a chain; and, heper son who guided the machine having caught hold of the

a The description of Syracuse may be seen in Vol. III.

head of a ship with this hook, by means of a weight let down within the walls, it was lifted up and set upon its stern, and held so for some time; then by letting go the chain, either by a wheel or a pully, it was let fall again, with its whole weight, either on its head or side, and often entirely sunk. At other times the machines dragging the ship towards the shore by cordage and hooks, after having made it whirl about a great while, dashed it to pieces against the points of the rocks, which projected under the walls, and thereby destroyed all within it. Galleys, frequently seized and suspended in the air, were whirled about with rapidity, exhibiting a dreadful sight to the spectators, after which they were let fall into

the sea, and sunk to the bottom, with all their crew. Marcellus had prepared, at great expense, machines called sambuce, from their resemblance to a musical instrument of that name. He appointed eight galleys of five benches for that purpose, from which the oars were removed, from half on the right, and from the other half on the left side. These were joined together, two and two, on the sides with-This machine consisted of a ladder of the breadth of four feet, which when erect was of equal height with the walls. It was laid at length upon the sides of the two gallevs joined together, and extended considerably beyond their beaks; and upon the masts of these vessels were affixed cords and pullies. When it was to work, the cords were made fast to the extremity of the machine, and men upon the stern drew it up by the help of the pullies; others at the head assisted in raising it with levers. The galleys afterwards being brought forward to the foot of the walls, the machines were applied to them. The bridge of the sambuca was then let down (no doubt after the manner of a drawbridge) upon which the besiegers passed to the walls of the place besieged.

This machine had not the expected effect. Whilst it was at a considerable distance from the walls, Archimedes discharged a vast stone upon it that weighed 10 " quintals, then a second, and immediately after a third; all of which striking against it with dreadful force and noise, beat down and broke its supports, and gave the galleys upon which it stood

such a shock, that they parted from each other.

Marcellus, almost discouraged, and at a loss what to do, retired as fast as possible with his galleys, and sent orders to his land-forces to do the same. He called also a council of war, in which it was resolved the next day, before sun-rise, to endeavour to approach the walls. They were in hopes, by this means, to shelter themselves from the machines,

a The quintal, which the Greeks call radianyov, was of several hinds. The Best weighed 125 pounds; the largest more than 1300.

which, for want of a distance proportioned to their force, would be rendered ineffectual.

But Archimedes had provided against all contingencies. He had prepared machines long before, as we have already observed, that carried, to all distances, a proportionate quantity of darts and ends of beams, which being very short, required less time for preparing them, and in consequence were more frequently discharged. He had besides made small chasms, or loop-holes, in the walls at little distances, where he had placed a scorpions, which, not carrying far, wounded those who approached, without being perceived but by their effect.

When the Romans had gained the foot of the walls, and thought themselves very well covered, they found themselves exposed either to an infinity of darts or overwhelmed with stones, which fell directly upon their heads, there being no part of the wall which did not continually pour that mortal hail upon them. This obliged them to retire. But they were no sooner removed than a new discharge of darts overtook them in their retreat; so that they lost great numbers of men, and almost all their galleys were disabled or beaten to pieces, without being able to revenge their loss in the least upon their enemies. For Archimedes had planted most of his machines in security behind the walls; and the Romans, says Plutarch, repulsed by an infinity of wounds, without seeing the place or hand from which they came, seemed to fight in reality against the gods.

Marcellus, though at a loss what to do, and not knowing how to oppose the machines of Archimedes, could not, however, forbear jesting upon them. "Shall we persist," said he to his workmen and engineers, "in making war with this "Briareus of a geometrician, who treats my galleys and sambucas so rudely? He infinitely exceeds the fabled gi"ants with their hundred hands, in his perpetual and sur"prising discharges upon us." Marcellus had reason for complaining of Archimedes alone. For the Syracusans were really no more than members of the engines and machines of that great geometrician, who was himself the soul of all their powers and operations. All other arms were unemployed, for the city at that time made use of none, either de-

fensive or offensive, but those of Archimedes.

Marcellus at length perceiving the Romans so much intimidated, that, if they saw upon the walls only a small cord or the least piece of wood, they would immediately fly, crying out, that Archimedes was going to discharge some dreadful machine upon them, renounced his hopes of being able

a The scorpions were machines in the nature of cross-bows, with which the meients used to discharge darts and stones.

to make a breach in the place, gave over his attacks, and turned the siege into a blockade. The Romans conceived that they had no other resource than to reduce the great number of people in the city by famine, in cutting off all provisions that might be brought to them by sea or land. During the eight months in which they besieged the city, there were no kind of stratagems which they did not invent, nor any actions of valour left untried, even to the assault, which they never dared to attempt more. So much force upon some occasions, have a single man and a single science, when rightly applied. Deprive Syracuse of only one old man, the great strength of the Roman arms must inevitably take the city; his sole presence checks and disconcerts all their de-

signs. We here see, which I cannot repeat too often, how much interest princes have in protecting arts, favouring the learned, encouraging academies of science by honourable distinctions and actual rewards, which never ruin or impoverish a state. I say nothing in this place of the birth and nobility of Archimedes; he was not indebted to them for the happiness of his genius and profound knowledge; I consider him only as a learned man, and an excellent geometrician. What a loss would Syracuse have sustained, if, to have saved a small expense and pension, such a man had been abandoned to inaction and obscurity! Hiero was far from such a conduct. He knew all the value of our geometrician; and it is no vulgar merit in a prince to understand that of other men. He placed it in honour; he made it useful; and did not stay till oceasion or necessity obliged him to do so, which would have been too late. By a wise foresight, the true character of a great prince and a great minister, in the very a arms of peace he provided all that was necessary for supporting a siege, and making war with success; though at that time there was no appearance of any thing to be apprehended from the Romans, with whom Syracuse was allied in the strictest friendship. Hence were seen to arise, in an instant. as out of the earth, an incredible number of machines, of every kind and size, the very sight of which were sufficient to strike armies with terror and confusion.

There are, amongst these machines, some of which we can scarcely conceive the effects, and the reality of which we might be tempted to call in question, if it were allowable to doubt the evidence of writers, such, for instance, as Polybius, an almost contemporary author, who treated on facts entirely recent, and such as were well known to all the world. But how can we refuse to give credit to the maintane

a In pace, ut sapiens, aptarit idonea bello. Horat. And wise in paces prepared the arms of war.

consent of Greek and Roman historians, in regard to circumstances of which whole armies were witnesses, and experienced the effects, and which had so great an influence in the events of the war? What passed in this siege of Syratuse shows how far the ancients had carried their genius and art in besieging and supporting sieges. Our artillery, which so perfectly imitates thunder, has not more effect than the engines of Archimedes, if indeed they have so much.

A burning-glass is spoken of, by the means of which Archimedes is said to have burnt part of the Roman fleet. That must have been an extraordinary invention; but, as no ancient author mentions it, it is no doubt a modern tradition without any foundation. Burning-glasses were known to antiquity, but not of that kind, which indeed seem impractica-

ble.

After Marcellus had resolved to confine himself to the blockade of Syracuse, he left Appius before the place with two-thirds of the army, advanced with the other into the island, and brought over some cities to the Roman interest.

At the same time, Himilcon, general of the Carthaginians, arrived in Sicily with a great army, in hopes of re-conquer-

ing it, and expelling the Romans.

Hippocrates left Syracuse with 10,000 foot and 500 horse to join him, and carry on the war in concert against Marcellus. Epicydes remained in the city, to command there during the blockade.

The fleets of the two states appeared at the same time on the coast of Sicily; but that of the Carthaginians, seeing itself weaker than the other, was afraid to venture a battle,

and soon sailed back for Carthage.

Marcellus had continued eight months before Syracuse with Appius, according to Polybius, when the year of his consulship expired. Livy places the expedition of Marcellus in Sicily, and his victory over Hippocrates, in this year, which must have been the second year of the siege. And indeed Livy has given us no account of this second year, because he had ascribed to the first what passed in the second. For it is highly improbable that nothing memorable happened in it.

This is the conjecture of Mr. Crevier, professor of rhetoric in the college of Beauvais, who has published a new edition of Livy with remarks, and with which I am convinced the public were well pleased. The first volume of the said work contains a long preface, which is well worth reading.

Marcellus therefore employed a great part of the second year of the siege in several expeditions in Sicily. On his return from Agrigentum, upon which he had made an ineffectual attempt, he came up with the army of Hippocrates, which he

a A. M. 3791. Ant. J. C. 213. Liv. L xxiv. n. 35, 26.

defeated, and killed above 8,000 men. This advantage kept those in their duty who had entertained thoughts of going over to the Carthaginians. After the gaining of this victory, he returned against Syracuse, and, having sent off Appius for Rome, who went thither to demand the consulship, he put Crispinus into his place.

In the beginning of the third campaign, Marcellus, almost absolutely despairing of being able to take Syracuse, either by force, because Archimedes continually opposed him with invincible obstacles, or famine, as the Carthaginian fleet, which was returned more numerous than before, easily threw in convoys, deliberated whether he should continue before Syracuse to push the siege, or turn his endeavours against Agrigentum. But, before he came to a final determination, he thought it proper to try whether he could not make himself master of Syracuse by some secret intelligence. There were many Syracusans in his camp, who had taken refuge there in the beginning of the troubles. A slave of one of these secretly carried on an intrigue, in which four score of the principal persons of the city engaged, who came in companies to consult with him in his camp, concealed in barks under the nets of fishermen. The conspiracy was on the point of taking effect, when a person named Attalus, through resentment for not having been admitted into it, discovered the whole to Epicydes, who put all the conspirators

This enterprise having thus miscarried, Marcellus found himself in new difficulties. Nothing employed his thoughts but the grief and shame of raising a siege, after having consumed so much time and sustained the loss of so many men and ships in it. An accident supplied him with a resource, and gave new life to his hopes. Some Roman vessels had taken one Damippus, whom Epicydes had sent to negotiate with Philip, king of Macedon. The Syracusans expressed a great desire to ransom this man, and Marcellus was not averse to it. A place near the port Trogilus was agreed on for the conferences concerning the ransom of the prisoner. As the deputies went thither several times, it came into a Roman soldier's thought to consider the wall with attention. After having counted the stones, and examined with his eye the measure of each of them, upon a calculation of the height of the wall he found it to be much lower than it was believed, and concluded, that, with ladders of a moderate size it might be easily scaled. Without loss of time he re-lated the whole to Marcellus. The general is not always the only wise man in an army; a private soldier may some-

a A. M. 3792. Aut. J. C. 212. Riv. l. m.v. n. 22, 31. Plut. in Marcoj. 305.

times furnish him with important hints. Marcellus did not neglect this advice, and assured himself of its reality with his own eyes. Having caused ladders to be prepared, he took the opportunity of a festival that the Syracusans celebrated for three days in honour of Diana, during which the inhabitants gave themselves up entirely to rejoicing and good cheer. At the time of night when he conceived that the Syracusans, after their debauch, would begin to grow drowsy and fall asleep, he made 1000 chosen troops, in profound silence, advance with their ladders to the wall. When the first had got to the top without noise or tumult, others followed, encouraged by the boldness and success of their leaders. These 1000 soldiers, taking advantage of the enemy's stillness, who were either drunk or asleep, soon scaled the wall. Having thrown down the gate of Hexapylum, they took possession of the quarter of the city called Epipolize.

It was then no longer time to decieve, but terrify, the enemy. The Syracusans, awakened by the noise, began to rouse, and to prepare for action. Marcellus made all his trumpets sound together, which so frightened and alarmed them, that all the inhabitants fled, believing every quarter of the city in the possession of the enemy. The strongest and best part, however, called Achradina, was not yet taken, because separated by its walls from the rest of the city.

Marcellus at day-break entered athe new city, by the

Marcellus at day-break entered athe new city, by the quarter called Tyche. Epicydes, having hastily drawn up some troops, which he had in the island adjoining to Achradina, marched against Marcellus; but, finding him stronger and better attended than he expected, after a sight skirmish,

he shut himself up in Achradina.

All the captains and officers with Marcellus congratulated him upon this extraordinary success. For himself, when he had considered from an eminence the loftiness, beauty, and extent, of that city, he is said to have shed tears, and to have deplored the unhappy condition it was upon the point of experiencing. He called to mind the two powerful Athenian fleets which had formerly been sunk before this city, and the two numersus armies cut in pieces, with the illustrious generals who commanded them: the many wars sustained with so much valour against the Carthaginians: the many famous tyrants and potent kings; Hiero particularly, whose memory was still recent, who had signalized himself by so many royal virtues, and still more by the important services he had rendered the Roman people, whose interests had always been as dear to him as his own. Moved by that reflec-

a The new city, or Neapolis, was Rappole, and in the latter times had been taken into the city and surrounded with walls.

tion, he believed it incumbent upon him, before he attacked Achradina, to send to the besieged to exhort them to surrender voluntarily, and prevent the ruin of their city. His remonstrances and exhortations had no effect.

To prevent interruption in his rear, he then attacked a fort called Euryelus, which lay at the bottom of the new town, and commanded the whole country on the land side. After having carried it, and placed therein a strong garrison,

he turned all his efforts against Achradina.

During these transactions, Hippocrates and Himilcon arrived. The first, with the Sicilians, having placed and fortified his camp near the great harbour, and giving the signal to those who were in possession of Achradina, attacked the old camp of the Romans, in which Crispinus commanded: Epicydes, at the same time, made a sally upon the posts of Marcellus. Neither of these enterprises was successful. Hippocrates was vigorously repulsed by Crispinus, who pursued him as far as his entrenchments, and Marcellus obliged Epicydes to shut himself up in Achradina.

As it was then autumn, there happened a plague, which killed great numbers in the city, and still more in the Ro-man and Carthaginian camps. The distemper was not excessive at first, and proceeded only from the bad air and season: but afterwards the communication with the infected, and even the care taken of them, dispersed the contagion: from whence it happened, that some, neglected and absolutely abandoned, died of the violence of the malady, and others received help which became fatal to those who brought Death, and the sight of such as were buried, continually presented a mournful object to the eyes of the living. thing was heard night and day but groans and lamentations. At length, the being accustomed to the evil had hardened their hearts to such a degree, and so far extinguished all sense of compassion in them, that they not only ceased to grieve for the dead, but left them without interment, thing was to be seen every where but dead bodies, exposed to the view of those who expected the same fate. Carthaginians suffered much more from it than the others. As they had no place to retire to, they almost all perished, with their generals Hippocrates and Himilcon. Marcellus. from the first breaking out of the disease, had brought his soldiers into the city, where the roofs and shade were of great relief to them; but notwithstanding he lost no inconsiderable number of men.

Bomilcar, in the mean time, who commanded the Carthaginian fleet, and had made a second voyage to Carthage to bring a new supply, returned with 130 ships and 700 trans. He was prevented by contrary winds from doubling

the cape of Pachynus. Epicydes, who was afraid, that, if those winds continued, this fleet might be discouraged and return to Africa, left Achradina to the care of the generals of the mercenary troops, and went to Bomilcar, whom he persuaded to try the event of a naval battle, as soon as the weather would permit. Marcellus, seeing the troops of the Sicilians increase every day, and that, if he stayed and suffered himself to be shut up in Syracuse, he should be very much pressed, at the same time, both by sea and land, resolved, though not so strong in ships, to oppose the passage of the Carthaginian fleet. As soon as the high winds abated, Bomilcar stood out to sea, m order to double the cape; but when he saw the Roman ships advance towards him in good order, on a sudden, for what reason is not said, he took to flight, sent orders to the transports to regain Africa, and retired to Tarentum. Epicydes, who had been disappointed in such great hopes, and was apprehensive of returning into a city adready half taken, made sail for Agrigentum, rather with the design of awaiting the event of the siege in that place than of making any new attempt from thence.

When it was known, in the camp of the Sicilians, that Epicydes had quitted Syracuse and the Carthaginians Sicily, they sent deputies to Marcellus, after having sounded the dispositions of the besieged, to treat upon the conditions on which Syracuse should surrender. It was agreed, with unanimity enough on both sides, that what had appertained to the king should appertain to the Romans; that the Sicilians should retain all the rest, with their laws and liberty. After these preliminaries, they demanded a conference with those to whom Epicydes had entrusted the government in his ab-They told them, they had been sent by the army to Marcellus, and the inhabitants of Syracuse, in order that all the Sicilians, as well within as without the city, might have the same fate, and that no separate convention might be made. Having been permitted to enter the city and to confer with their friends and relations, after having informed them of what they had already agreed with Marcellus, and giving them assurances that their lives would be safe, they persuaded them to begin by removing the three governors Epicydes had left in his place, which was immediately put in execu-

After which, having assembled the people, they represented, "That for whatever miseries they had suffered till then, "or should suffer from thenceforth, they ought not to accuse fortune, as it depended upon themselves alone to put an "end to them: that, if the Romans had undertaken the siege of Syracuse, it was out of affection, not enmity, to the Sy-

[&]quot;racusans: that it was not till after they had been appr

"of the oppressions they suffered from Hippocrates and Epicydes, those ambitious agents of Hamibal, and afterwards of Hieronymus, that they had taken arms, and begun the siege of the city, not to ruin it, but to destroy its
tyrants: that, as Hippocrates was dead, Epicydes no longer in Syracuse, his lieutenant slain, and the Carthagimians
dispossessed of Sicily, both by sea and land, what reason
could the Romans now have for not inclining as much to
preserve Syracuse as if Hiero, the sole example of fidelity
towards them, were still alive? That neither the city nor the
inhabitants had any thing to fear but from themselves, if they
let slip the occasion of renewing their amity with the Romans: that they never had so favourable an opportunity as the
present, when they were just delivered from the violent go-

" vernment of their tyrants; and that the first use they ought

" to make of their liberty was to return to their duty." This discourse was perfectly well received by every body. It was however judged proper to create new magistrates before the nomination of deputies; the latter of whom were chosen out of the former. The deputy who spoke in their name, and who was instructed solely to use his utmost endeavours that Syracuse might not be destroyed, addressed himself to Marcellus to this effect: "It was not the people " of Syracuse who first broke the alliance and declared war "against you, but Hieronymus, less criminal still towards "Rome than towards his country; and, afterwards, when " peace was restored by his death, it was not any Syracu-" san that infringed it, but the tyrant's instruments, Hippo-"crates and Epicydes. They were the enemies who have made war against you, after having made us slaves, either " by violence or fraud and perfidy; and it cannot be said. "that we have had any times of liberty that have not also " been times of peace with you. At present, as soon as we " are become masters of ourselves, by the death of those 44 who held Sicily in subjection, we come the very instant to " deliver up to you our arms, our persons, our walls, and our "city, determined net to refuse any conditions you shall "think fit to impose. For the rest," continued he, addressing himself still to Marcellus, " your interest is as much " concerned as ours. The gods have granted you the glory " of having taken the finest and most illustrious city possess-"ed by the Greeks. All we have ever achieved worthy of " being recorded, either by sea or land, augments and adorn's "your triumph. Fame is not a sufficiently faithful chroni-" cler to make known the greatness and strength of the ci-"ty you have taken; posterity can only judge of them by "its own eyes. It is necessary that we should show to all " travellers, from whatever part of the universe they come,

" sometimes the trophies we have obtained from the Athenans and Carthaginians, and sometimes those you have
acquired from us; and that Syracuse, thus placed for ever
under the protection of Marcellus, may be a lasting and
eternal monument of the valour and clemency of him whe
took and preserved it. It is unjust that the remembrance
of Hieronymus should have more weight with you than
that of Hiero. The latter was much longer your friend
than the former your enemy. Permit me to say you have
experienced the good effects of the amity of Hiero; but
the senseless enterprises of Hieronymus have fallen solely

" upon his own head."

The difficulty was not to obtain what they demanded from Marcellus, but to preserve tranquillity and union amongst those in the city. The deserters, convinced that they should be delivered up to the Romans, inspired the foreign soldiers with the same fear. Both the one and the other having therefore taken arms, whilst the deputies were still in the camp of Marcellus, they began by cutting the throats of the magistrates newly elected; and, dispersing themselves on all sides, they put to the sword all they met, and plundered whatever fell in their way. That they might not be without leaders, they appointed six officers, three to command in Achradina, and three in the isle. The turnult being at length appeased, the foreign troops were informed, from all hands, that it was concluded with the Romans that their cause should be entirely distinct from that of the deserters. the same instant the deputies who had been sent to Marcellus arrived, who fully undeceived them.

Amongst those who commanded in Syracuse there was a Spaniard, named Mericus: means were found to corrupt him. He gave up the gate near the fountain Arethusa to soldiers sent by Marcellus in the night to take possession of At day-break the next morning Marcellus made a false attack at Achradina, to draw all the forces of the citadel and the isles adjoining to it to that side, and to enable some vessels he had prepared to throw troops into the isle, which would be unguarded. Every thing succeeded according to his plan. The soldiers, whom those vessels had landed in the isle, finding almost all the posts abandoned, and the gates, by which the garrison of the citadel had marched out against Marcellus, still open, they took possession of them after a slight encounter. Marcellus, having received advice that he was master of the isle, and of part of Achradina, and that Mericus, with the body under his command, had joined his troops, ordered a retreat to be sounded, that the treasures of the kings might not be plundered. They did not rise so high in their amount as was imagined.

The deserters having escaped, a passage being expressly left open for them, the Syracusans opened all the gates of Achradina to Marcellus, and sent deputies to him with instructions to demand nothing farther from him than the preservation of the lives of themselves and their children. Marcellus, having assembled his council, and some Syracusans who were in his camp, gave his answer to the deputies in their presence: "That Hiero, for fifty years, had not "done the Roman people more good than those who had "been masters of Syracuse some years past had intend-"ed to do them harm; but that their ill-will had fallen " upon their own heads, and they had punished themselves "for their violation of treaties in a more severe manner "than the Romans could have desired: that he had besieg-"ed Syracuse during three years, not that the Roman people might reduce it into slavery, but to prevent the " chiefs of the revolters from continuing to hold it under op-"pression: that he had undergone many fatigues and dan-"gers in so long a siege; but that he thought he had made himself ample amends by the glory of having taken that "city, and the satisfaction of having saved it from the en-"tire ruin it seemed to deserve." After having placed a body of troops to secure the treasury, and safe-guards in the houses of the Syracusans who had withdrawn into his camp. he abandoned the city to be plundered. It is reported, that the riches which were pillaged in Syracuse at this time exceeded all that could have been expected at the taking of

Carthage itself. An unhappy accident interrupted the joy of Marcellus, and gave him a very sensible affliction. Archimedes, at a time when all things were in this confusion at Syracuse, shut up in his closet like a man of another world who had no regard for what passed in this, was intent upon the study of some geometrical figure, and not only his eyes, but the whole faculties of his soul, were so engaged in this contemplation, that he had neither heard the tumult of the Romans, universally busy in plundering, nor the report of the city's being taken. A soldier on a sudden comes in upon him, and bids him follow him to Marcellus. Archimedes desired him to stay a moment, till he had solved his problem and finished the demonstration of it. The soldier, who neither cared for his problem nor demonstration, enraged at this delay, drew his sword and killed him. Marcellus was exceedingly afflicted when he heard the news of his death. Not being able to restore him to life, of which he would have been very glad, he applied himself to honour his memory to the utmost of his power. He made a diligent search after all his relations, treated them with great distinction, and granted them peculiar rivileges. As for Archimedes, he caused his funeral to be celebrated in the most solemn manner, and erected to him a monument amongst the great persons who had distinguished themselves most at Syracuse.

ARTICLE III.

SECT. I .- Tomb of Archimedes discovered by Cicero.

Archimedes, by his will, had desired his relations and friends to put no other epitaph on his tomb, after his death, than a cylinder circumscribed by a sphere, that is to say, a globe, or spherical figure, and to set down at the bottom the proportion which those two solids, the containing and the contained, have to each other. He might have filled up the bases of the columns of his tomb with relievoes, whereon the whole history of the siege of Syracuse might have been carved, and himself appeared like another Jupiter thundering upon the Romans. But he set an infinitely higher value upon a discovery, a geometrical demonstration, than upon all the so much celebrated machines which he had invented.

Hence he chose rather to do himself honour in the eyes of posterity, by the discovery he had made of the relation of a sphere to a cylinder of the same base and height; which is

as two to three.

The Syracusans, who had been in former times so fond of the sciences, did not long retain the esteem and gratitude they owed a man who had done so much honour to their city. Less than 140 years after, Archimedes was so perfectly forgotten by his citizens, notwithstanding the great services he had done them, that they denied his having been buried at Syracuse. It is Cicero who informs us of this circumstance.

At the time he was quæstor in Sicily, his curiosity induced him to make a search after the tomb of Archimedes: a curiosity that became a man of Cicero's genius, and which merits the imitation of all who travel. The Syracusans assured him that his search would be to no purpose, and that there was no such monument amongst them. Cicero pitied their ignorance, which only served to increase his desire of making that discovery. At length, after several fruitless attempts, he perceived, without the gate of the city facing Agrigentum, amongst a great number of tombs in that place, a pillar almost entirely covered with thorns and brambles, through which he could discern the figure of a sphere and cylinder. Those who have any taste for antiquities may easily conceive: the joy of Cicero upon this occasion. He cried out b, "that he had found what he had looked for."

a Cie. Tuse. Quæst. l. v. n. 64, 66.

† Ευρηπα, u dopting an expression of Archimedes.

place was immediately ordered to be cleared, and a passage opened to the column, on which they saw the inscription still legible, though part of the lines were obliterated by time. So that, says Cicero, in concluding this account, the greatest city of Greece, and the most flourishing of old in the study of the sciences, would not have known the treasure it possessed, if a man, born in a country which it considered almost as barbarous, had not discovered for it the tomb of its gitizen, so highly distinguished by the force and penetration of his mind.

We are obliged to Cicero for having left us this curious and elegant account; but we cannot easily pardon him for the contemptuous manner in which he speaks at first of Archimedes. It is in the beginning, where, intending to compare the unhappy life of Dionysius the tyrant with the felicity of one passed in sober virtue and abounding with wisdom, he says s: " I will not compare the lives of a Plato or "an Architas, persons of consummate learning and wisdom, with that of Dionysius, the most horrid, the most misera-" ble, and the most detestable, that can be imagined. I shall " have recourse to a man of his own city, A LITTLE OBSCURE "PERSON, who lived many years after him. I shall produce " him from his c dust, and bring him upon the stage with his "rule and compasses in his hand." I say nothing of the birth of Archimedes, his greatness was of a different class. But ought the greatest geometrician of antiquity, whose sublime discoveries have in all ages been the admiration of the learned, be treated by Cicero as little and obscure, as if he had been only a common artificer employed in making machines; unless it be, perhaps, that the Romans, with whom a taste for geometry and such speculative sciences never gained much ground, esteemed nothing great but what related to government and policy.

Orabunt causas melius, celique meatus Describent radio, et surgentia sidera dicent : Tu regere imperio populos, Romane, memento

Virgil, Æn. 6.

Let others better mould the running mass Of metals, and inform the breathing brass, And soften into flesh a marble face : Plead better at the bar, describe the skies. And when the stars descend and when they rise;

Non ergo jam cum bujus vita, qua tetrius, mierius, detestabilius, excogitare nihil possum. Platonis aut Architz vitam comparabe, doctorum hominum et plane sapientura. Ex cadem urbe humilum homuncionem a pulvere et radio excitabo, qui multis annis post fuit Archimedem. c He means the dust used by goometricians.

a Ita nobilistima Graciæ civitas, quandam vero etism doctissima, sui civis uni-us acutissimi monumentum ignorasset, nisi ab homine Arpinate didicisset.

But, Rome, 'tis thine alone, with awful away, To rule mankind and make the world obey: Disposing peace and war thy own majestic way.

Dryden

This is the Abbé Fraguier's reflection in the short dissertation he has left us upon this passage of Cicero.

SECT. II .- Summary of the history of Syracuse.

The island of Sicily, with the greatest part of Italy, extending between the two seas, composed what was called Magna Gracia, in opposition to Greece, properly so called, which had peopled all those countries by its colonies.

by Syracuse was the most considerable city of Sicily, and one of the most powerful of all Greece. It was founded by Architas the Corinthian, in the third year of the 17th Olym-

piad.

The first two ages of its history are very obscure, and therefore I pass over them in silence. It does not begin to be known till after the reign of Gelon, and furnishes in the sequel many great events, for the space of more than 200 years. During all that time it exhibits a perpetual alternative of slavery under the tyrants and liberty under a popular government; till Syracuse is at length subjected to the Romans, and makes part of their empire.

I have treated all these events, except the last, in the order of time. But as they are cut into different sections, and dispersed into different books, I have thought proper to unite them here in one point of view, that their series and comexion might be the more evident, from their being shown together and in general, and the places pointed out where

they are treated with due extent.

c Gelon. The Carthaginians, in concert with Xerxes, having attacked the Greeks who inhabited Sicily, whilst that prince was employed in making an irruption into Greece, Gelon, who had made himself master of Syracuse, obtained a selebrated victory over the Carthaginians, the very day of the battle of Thermopylæ. Amilcar, their general, was killed in this battle. Historians speak differently of his death, which has occasioned my falling into a contradiction. For on one side I suppose, with a Diodorus Siculus, that he was killed by the Sicilians in the battle; and on the other I say, after Herodotus, that, to avoid the shame of surviving his defeat, he threw himself into the pile, in which he had sacrificed many human victims.

· Gelon, upon returning from his victory, repaired to the

⁴ Memoirs of the Academy of Inscription. Vol II. 6 A. M. 3295. c A. M. 3520. d In the history of the Carthaginians. c A. M. 3545.

VOL. VIII.

assembly without arms or guards, to give the people an account of his conduct. He was chosen king unanimously. He reigned five or six years, solely employed in the truly reval care of making his people happy. Book ii. Part ii. Book vii. ch. ii. sect. 1.

a Hiero I. Hiero, the eldest of Gelon's brothers, succeeded him. The beginning of his reign was worthy of great praise. Simonides and Pindar vied with each other in celebrating him. The latter part of it did not answer the former. He reigned 11 years. Book vii. ch. ii. sect. 1. 2d division.

⁶ Thrasibulus. Thrasibulus, his brother, succeeded him. He rendered himself odious to all his subjects by his vices and cruelty. They expelled him the throne and city, after a reign of one year. Book vii. ch. ii. sect. 1. 3d division.

TIMES OF LIBERTY.

c After his expulsion, Syracuse and all Sicily enjoyed their liberty for the space of almost 60 years.

An annual festival was instituted to celebrate the day upon

which their liberty was re-established.

SYRACUSE ATTACKED BY THE ATHENIANS.

d During this interval, the Athenians, animated by the warm exhortations of Alcibiades, turned their arms against Syracuse; this was in the sixth year of the Peloponnesian war. How fatal the event of this war was to the Athenians may be seen Book viii, ch. iii. end of sect. 6.

c Dionysius the elder. The reign of this prince is famous for its length of 38 years; and still more for the extraordinary events with which it was attended. Book ii. Part i. ch.

i. Book i. Part. ii. ch. i. 150, &c.

f Dionysius the younger. Dionysius, son of the elder Dionysius, succeeded him. He contracts a particular intimacy with Plato, and has frequent conversations with him, who had come to his court at the request of Dion, the near relation of Dionysius. He did not long improve from the wise precepts of that philosopher, and soon abandoned himself to all the vices and excesses which attended tyranny.

Besieged by Dion, he escapes from the citadel, and re-

tires into Italy.

h Dion's excellent qualities. He is assassinated in his own

House by Calippus.

. Thirteen months after the death of Dion, Hipparinus, brother of Dionysius the younger, expels Calippus, and es-

a A. M. 3532. b A. M. 3543. c A. M. 3544. d A. M. 3586. c A. M. 3595. f A. M. 3636. b A. M. 3646. b A. M. 3606. i A. M. 3567.

tablishes himself in Syracuse. During the two years of his reign, Sicily is agitated by great commotions.

Dionysius the younger, taking advantage of those troubles, re-ascends the throne 10 years after having quitted it.

At last, reduced by Timoleon, he retires to Corinth. Book ii. Part iii. chap. 1.—Book xi. sect. 5.

TEMES OF LIBERTY.

Timoleon restores liberty to Syracuse. He passes the rest of his life there in a glorious retirement, beloved and honoured by all the citizens and strangers. Book xi. ch. ii. sect. 6.

This interval of liberty was of no long duration.

d AGATHOCLES. Agathocles, in a short time, makes himself tyrant of Syracuse. Book ii. Part ii. ch. i. near the end.

He commits unparalleled cruelties.

He forms one of the boldest designs related in history; carries the war into Africa; makes himself master of the strongest places, and ravages the whole country.

After various events he perishes miserably. He reigned

about 28 years.

TIMES OF LIBERTY.

e Syracuse took new life again for some time, and tasted with joy the sweets of liberty.

But she suffered much from the Carthaginians, who dis-

turbed her tranquillity by continual wars.

She called in Pyrrhus to her aid. The rapid success of his arms at first gave him great hopes, which soon vanished. Pyrrhus by a sudden retreat plunged the Syracusans into new misfortunes. Book i. Part ii. ch. ii. near the end. Book xvi. sect. 7.

HIERO II. They were not happy and in tranquillity till the reign of Hiero II. which was very long, and almost al-

ways pacific.

HIERONYMUS. He scarcely reigned one year. His death was followed with great troubles, and the taking of Syra-

cuse by Marcellus.

After that period, what passed in Sicily to its total reduction is little remarkable. There were still some remains of war fomented in it by the partisans of tyranny, and that the partisans of tyranny, and the partisans o

first Punic war. By that treaty, Sicily was divided into two parts; the one continued in the possession of the Romans and the other under the government of Hiero; which last part, after the surrender of Syracuse, fell also into their hands.

SECT. III.

Reflections upon the government and character of the Syracusans, and upon Archimedes.

By the taking of Syracuse, all Sicily became a province of the Roman empire: but it was not treated as the Spaniards and Carthaginians were afterwards, upon whom a certain tribute was imposed, as the reward of the victory and punishment of the vanquished: Quasi victoria pramium, ac nana belli. Sicily, in submitting to the a Roman people, retained all her ancient rights and customs, and obeyed them upon the same conditions she had obeyed her kings. And she certainly well deserved that privilege and distinction. She was the first of all the foreign nations that had entered into alliance and amity with the Romans; the first conquest their arms had the glory to make out of Italy; and the first country that had given them the grateful experience of commanding a foreign people. The greatest part of the Sicilian cities had expressed an unexampled attachment, fidelity, and affection, for the Romans. The island was afterwards a kind of step for their troops to pass over into Africa; and Rome would not so easily have reduced the formidable power of the Carthaginians, if Sicily had not served it as a magazine, abounding with provisions, and a secure retreat for their fleets. Hence, after the taking and ruin of Carthage, Scipio Africanus thought himself bound to adorn the cities of Sicily with a great number of excellent paintings and curious statues; in order that a people who were so highly gratified with the success of the Roman arms might be sensible of its effects, and retain illustrious monuments of

victories amongst them.
Scily would have been happy in being governed by the Romans, if they had always given her such magistrates as Cicero, as well acquainted as he with the obligations of his function, and like him intent upon the due discharge of it. It

Siema civitates sie in amicitaam recepimus, ut codem jure essent, que fasses en conditione populo R garrent que sens antes paraissent Cleam nationam exterarum princeps Sicilià se ad amicitam fidemque applicutt: prima ounnium, id quod ornamentum imperii est, provincia cellata: prima domnium, id quod ornamentum imperii est, provincia mperare,—Inque unajoribus nostris in Airicam ex hac provincia grafia factus ext. Neque enim tam tacile opes Carthaginis tante consulissent, una filud, et rei irumentarize subsidium, et recepusculum elasibus nostris pateret. Quare P A. ricanus, Carthague deleta, Siculorum urbes signis mopumentisque pulcherminis exomavir; ut, quoy circoris populi R. lexaria rabitumetur, apud cos menumenta victorize plurima collocarea. Gio. Verr. 3.2.2.3.

is highly pleasing to hear him explain himself upon the subject; which he does in his defence of Sicily against Verres. After having invoked the gods as witnesses of the sincerity of the sentiments he is going to express, he says: " in all " a the employments with which the Roman people have ho-" noured me to this day, I have ever thought myself obliged, "by the most sacred ties of religion, worthily to discharge "the duties of them. When I was made quastor, I looked up-" on that dignity not as a gratuity conferred upon me for my particular use, but as a deposit confided to my vigilance and "fidelity. When I was afterwards sent to act in that office " in Sicily, I thought all eyes were turned upon me, and that " my person and administration were in a manner exhibited "as a spectacle to the view of all the world: and in this "thought I not only denied myself all pleasures of an ex-"traordinary kind, but even those which are authorized "by nature and necessity. I am now intended for zdile. "call the gods to witness, that how honourable soever this "dignity seems to me, I have too just a sense of its weight, " not to have more solicitude and disquiet than joy and plea-" sure from it; so much do I desire to make it appear, that "it was not bestowed on me by chance, or the necessity of

" discernment of my country," All the Roman governors were far from being of this character; and Sicily, above all other provinces, experienced, as • Cicero some lines after reproaches Verres, that they were almost all of them like so many tyrants, who believed themselves attended by the fasces and axes, and invested with the authority of the Roman empire, only to exercise in their province an open robbery of the public with impunity, and to break through all the barriers of justice and shame

"being filled up, but confided deservedly by the choice and

a O dii immortales i—Ita mihi meam veluntatem spemque reliqua vitz vetta populique R. existimatio comprobet, ut ego quos adhae mihi magistratua populice R. mandavit, ete ess secepi, ut me omnium officiorum obstringi religione arbitarez. Ita quastor sum factus, ut mihi honorem illem men tam datum quam creditum at commissum putarem. Sis obtinhi questuram in provincia, ut omnium ceulos im me unum conjectos arbitarez: ut me questuranque meam quas in aliquo orbit terre theatro versari existimarem; ut omnia semper, que pueumda videntur cese, non modo his quiracolitaritis capititutibus, sed ciam ipsi nature ze necessitati denegarem. Nune aum designatus addita.—Ita mihi deco comnes propitos esse velim, ut tamenti mihi quemdissin us est hance popula, ut hec ipsa «dilitas, non quia mecesse fait aliqui candidato data, sed quia se oportuerit recte collocata, et judicio populi digno in loco posita esse videntur. Cie. Ver. 7 n. 35—37.

8 Nonquam tibi venit in memtem, non tibi ideireo fiance et secure, et imnium

b Nunquam tibi venit in mentem, non tibi ideireo fasces et secures, et tantam imperii vim, tantamque ornamentorum omnium dignitatem datam ; ut earum rerum vi et auctoritate omnia repagula juris, padoris, et officii periringeres; ut omnia bona pradam tum dioence ; mulius rea tota. onlilus domna odana nuilius vita septa, nullius pudicitis munita, contra tuam cupiditutem et aminciam posset esse. Cic. Verr. B. 39.

in such a manner, that no man's estate, life, house, nor even

honour, were safe from their violence.

Syracuse, from all we have seen of it, ought to appear like a theatre, on which many different and surprising scenes have been exhibited; or rather like a sea, sometimes calm and untroubled, but oftener violently agitated by winds and storms, always ready to overwhelm it entirely. We have seen in no other republic such sudden, frequent, violent, and various, revolutions: sometimes enslaved by the most cruel tyrants, at others under the government of the wisest kings; sometimes abandoned to the capricious will of a populace, without either government or restriction; sometimes, perfectly docile and submissive to the authority of the law and the empire of reason, it passed alternately from the most insupportable slavery to the most grateful liberty, from a kind of convulsions and frantic emotions to a wise, peaceable, and regular, conduct. The reader will easily call to mind, on the one side, Dionysius the father and son, Agathocles and Hieronymus, whose cruelties made them the objects of the public hatred and detestation; on the other, Gelon, Dion, Timoleon, the two Hieros, ancient and modern, universally

beloved and revered by the people.

To what are such opposite extremes and vicissitudes so contrary to be attributed? Undoubtedly, the levity and inconstancy of the Syracusans, which was their distinguishing characteristic, had a great share in them; but what, I am convinced, conduced the most to them was the very form of their government, compounded of the aristocratic and democratic: that is to say, divided between the senate, or elders, and the people. As there was no counterpoise in Syracuse to balance those two bodies, when authority inclined either to the one side or the other, the government presently changed either into a violent and cruel tyranny or an unbridled liberty without order or regulation. The sudden confusion, at such times, of all orders of the state, made the way to sovereign power casy to the most ambitious of the citizens: to attract the affection of their country and soften the yoke to their fellow citizens, some exercised that power with lenity, wisdom, equity, and popular behaviour; and others, by nature less virtuously inclined, carried it to the last excess of the most absolute and cruel despotism, under pretext of supporting the selves against the attempts of their citizens, who, jealous of their liberty, thought every means for the recovery of it legitimate and laudable.

There were, besides, other reasons that rendered the government of Syracuse difficult, and thereby made way for the frequent changes it under went. That city did not forget the signal victories it had obtained against the formidable power of Africa, and that it had carried its victorious arms and terror even to the walls of Carthage: and that not once only, as afterwards against the Athenians, but during several ages. The high idea its fleets and numerous troops suggested of its maritime power, at the time of the irruption of the Persians into Greece, occasioned its pretending to equal Athens in that respect, or at least to divide the empire of the sea with that state.

Besides which, riches, the natural effect of commerce, had rendered the Syracusans proud, haughty, and imperious, and at the same time had plunged them into a sloth and luxury that inspired them with a disgust for all fatigue and application. They generally sbandoned themselves blindly to their orators, who had acquired an absolute ascendant over them. In order to make them obey, it was necessary either to flatter or reproach them.

They had naturally a fund of equity, humanity, and goodnature; and yet, when influenced by the seditious discourses of the orators, they would proceed to excessive violence and

cruelties, which they immediately after repented.

When they were left to themselves, their liberty, which at that time knew no bounds, soon degenerated into caprice, fury, violence, and I might say even phrenzy. On the contrary, when they were subjected to the yoke, they became base, timerous, submissive, and groveling like slaves. But, as this condition was violent, and directly contrary to the character and disposition of the Greek nation, born and nurtured in liberty, the sense of which was not wholly extinguished in them but merely lulled asleep, they waked from time to time from their lethargy, broke their chains, and made use of them, if I may be admitted to use the expression, to beat down and destroy the unjust masters who had imposed them.

With a small attention to the whole series of the history of the Syracusans, it may easily be perceived, (as Galba afterwards said of the Romans) that they were equally incapable of bearing either entire liberty or entire servitude. So that the ability and policy of those who governed them consisted in keeping the people to a wise medium between those two extremes, by seeming to leave them an entire freedom in their resolutions, and reserving only to themselves the care of explaining the utility and facilitating the execution of good measures. And in this the magistrates and kings we have spoken of were wonderfully successful, under whose government the Syracusans always enjoyed peace and tran-

a Imperaturus es hominibus, qui nec totans servitutem pati pessunt, nec to am libertatem. Tacit. Hist. 1 i. e. 16.

quillity, were obedient to their princes, and perfectly submissive to the laws. And this induces me to conclude, that the revolutions of Syracuse were less the effect of the people's levity than the fault of those that governed them, who had not the art of managing their passions and engaging their affection, which is properly the science of kings, and of all who command others.

BOOK THE TWENTY-SECOND.

THE

HISTORY

OF

PONTUS.

SECT. 1.

Mithridates escends the throne of Pontus. Library of Athens carried to Rome.

MITHRIDATES, king of Pontus, whose history I am now beginning to relate, and who rendered himself so famous by the war he supported, during almost 30 years, against the Romans, was surnamed Eupator. He descended from a house which had given a long succession of kings to the king-dom of Pontus. The first, according to some historians, was Artabazus, one of the seven princes that slew the Magi. and set the crown of Persia upon the head of Darius Hystaspes, who rewarded him with the kingdom of Pontus. But, besides that we do not find the name of Artabazus amongst those Persians, many reasons induce us to believe, that the prince of whom we speak was the son of Darius, the same who is called Artabarzanes, who was competitor with Xerxes for the throne of Persia, and was made king of Pontus either by his father or his brother, to console him for the preference given to Xerxes. His posterity enjoyed that kingdom during 17 generations. Mithridates Eupator, of whom we are treating in this place, was the 16th from him.

^a He was but 12 years of age when he began to reign. His father, before his death, had appointed him his successor, and had given him his mother for guardian, who was to govern, jointly with him. ^b He began his reign by putting his mo-

ther and brother to death; and the sequel answered but too well to such a beginning. ^a Nothing is said of the first years of his reign, except that one of the Roman generals, whom he had corrupted with money, having surrendered, and put him into possession of Phrygia, it was soon after taken from him by the Romans, which gave birth to his enmity against them.

Ariarathes, king of Cappadocia, being dead, Mithridates caused the two sons he had left behind him to be put to death, though their mother Laodice was his own sister, and placed one of his own sons, at that time very young, upon the throne, giving him the name of Ariarathes, and appointing Gordius his guardian and regent. Nicomedes, king of Bithynia, who apprehended that this increase of power would put Mithridates into a condition to possess himself also of his dominions in time, thought proper to set up a certain young man (who seemed very fit for acting such a part) as a third son of Ariarathes. He engaged Laodice, whom he had espoused after the death of her first husband, to acknowledge him as such, and sent her to Rome, to assist and support by her presence the claim of this pretended son, whom she carried thither along with her. The cause being brought before the senate, both parties were condemned; and a decree passed, by which the Cappadocians were declared free. But they said they could not be without a king. The senate permitted them to choose whom they thought fit. They elected Ario-barzanes, a nobleman of their nation. Sylla, upon his quitting the office of prætor, was charged with the commission of establishing him upon the throne. That was the pretext for this expedition; but the real motive of it was, to check the enterprises of Mithridates, whose power, daily augmenting, gave umbrage to the Romans. Sylla executed his commission the following year; c and, after having defeated a great number of Cappadocians, and a much greater of Armenians; who came to their aid, he expelled Gordius, with the pretended Ariarathes, and set Ariobarzanes in his place.

Whilst Sylla was encamped upon the banks of the Euphrates, Parthian, named Orobasus, arrived at his camp from king Arsaces, to demand the alliance and amity of the Romans. Sylla received him at his audience, caused three seats to be placed in his tent, one for Ariobarzanes, who was present, another for Orobasus, and that in the midst for himself. The Parthian king afterwards, offended at his deputy for having acquiesced in this instance of the Roman pride, caused him to be put to death. This is the first time the

Parthians had any intercourse with the Romans.

a Appien. in Mithrid. p. 177, 176, c A. M. 3914. Ant. J. C. 90.

⁶ A. M. 3913. Aut. J. C. 91. of This was Mithridates II.

Mithridates did not dare at that time to oppose the establishment of Ariobarzanes; but, dissembling the mortification that conduct of the Romans gave him, he resolved to take an opportunity of being revenged upon them. In the mean while he applied himself in cultivating good alliances for the augmentation of his strength, and began with Tigranes, king of Armenia, a very powerful prince. Armenia had at first appertained to the Persians; it came under the Macedonians afterwards, and, upon the death of Alexander, made part of the kingdom of Syria. Under Antiochus the Great, two of his generals, Artaxius and Zadriadres, with that prince's permission, established themselves in this province, of which it is probable they were before governors. After the defeat of Antiochus they adhered to the Romans, who acknowledged them as kings. They had divided Armenia into two parts. Tigranes, of whom we now speak, descended from Artaxius. He possessed himself of all Armenia, subjected several neighbouring countries by his arms, and thereby formed a very powerful kingdom. Mithridates gave him his daughter Cleopatra in marriage, and engaged him to enter so far into his projects against the Romans, that they agreed Mithridates should have the cities and countries they should conquer for his share, and Tigranes the people, with all the effects capable of being carried away.

by Tigranes, who deprived Ariobarzanes of Cappadocia, of which the Romans had put him into possession, and re-established Ariarathes, the son of Mithridates, in it. Nicomedes, king of Bithynia, happening to die about this time, his eldest son, called also Nicomedes, ought naturally to have succeeded him, and was accordingly proclaimed king. But Mithridates set up his younger brother, Socrates, against him, who deprived him of the throne by force of arms. The two dethroned kings went to Rome, to implore aid of the senate, who decreed their re-establishment, and sent Manius Aqui-

lius and M. Altinius to put that decree in execution.

They were both re-instated. The Romans advised them to make irruptions into the lands of Mithridates; promising them their support; but neither the one nor the other dared to attack so powerful a prince so near home. At length, however, Nicomedes, urged both by the ambassadors, to whom he had promised great sums for his re-establishment, and by his creditors, Roman citizens settled in Asia, who had lent him very considerable sums for the same purpose, could no longer resist their solicitations. He made incursions upon

the lands of Mithridates, ravaged all the flat country as far as the city Amastris, and returned home laden with booty,

which he applied in discharging part of his debts.

Mithridates was not ignorant by whose advice Nicomedes had committed this irruption. He might easily have repulsed him, as he had a great number of good troops on foot; but he did not take the field. He was glad to throw the blame on the side of the Romans, and to have a just cause for declaring war against them. He began by making remonstrances to their generals and ambassadors. Pelopidas was at the head of this embassy. He complained of the various contraventions of the Romans to the treaty of alliance subsisting between them and Mithridates, and in particular of the protection granted by them to Nicomedes, his declared enemy. The ambassadors of the latter replied, and made complaints on their side against Mithridates. The Romans, who were unwilling to declare themselves openly at present, gave them an answer in loose and general terms; that the Roman people had no intention that Mithridates and Nicomedes should injure each other.

Mithridates, who was not satisfied with this answer, made his troops march immediately into Cappadocia, expelled Ariobarzanes again, and set his son Ariarathes upon the throne as he had done before. At the same time, he sent his ambassador to the Roman generals to make his apology. and to renew his complaints against them. Pelopidas declared to them, that his master was contented the Roman people should be umpire in the affair, and added, that he had already sent his ambassadors to Rome. He exhorted them not to undertake any thing till they had received the senate's orders, nor engage rashly in a war that might be attended with fatal censequences. For the rest, he gave them to understand, that Mithridates, in case justice were refused him, was in a condition to procure it for himself. The Romans, highly offended at so haughty a declaration, made answer, that Mithridates was immediately to withdraw his troops from Cappadocia, and not to continue to disturb Nicomedes or Ariobarzanes. They ordered Pelopidas to quit the camp that moment, and not return, unless his master obeyed. The other ambassadors were no better received at Rome.

The rupture was then inevitable, and the Roman generals did not wait till the orders of the senate and people arrived; which was what Mithridates had demanded. The design he had long formed of declaring war against the Romans had occasioned his having made many alliances, and engaged many nations in his interest. Amongst his troops were reck-oned 20 nations of as many different languages, all which

Mithridates himself spoke with facility. His army consisted of 250,000 foot and 40,000 horse, without including 130

armed chariots, and a fleet of 400 ships.

a Before he proceeded to action, he thought it necessary to prepare his troops for it, and made them a b long discourse to animate them against the Romans. He represented to them, "That there was no room for examining whether " war or peace were to be preferred; that the Romans, by " attacking them first, had spared them that inquiry: that "their business was to fight and conquer: that he assured "himself of success, if the troops persisted to act with the "same valour they had already shown upon so many "occasions, and very lately against the same enemies, " whom they had put to flight and cut to pieces in Bithynia " and Cappadocia: that there could not be a more favour-" able opportunity than the present, when the Marsi infest-"ed and ravaged the very heart of Italy: when Rome was " torn in pieces by civil wars, and an innumerable army of " the Cimbri from Germany overran all Italy: that the time " was come for humbling those proud republicans, who had "the same view with regard to the royal dignity, and had " sworn to pull down all the thrones of the universe: that, " for the rest c, the war his soldiers were now entering upon " was highly different from that they had sustained with so " much valour in the horrid deserts and frozen regions of "Scythia: that he should lead them into the most fruitful " and temperate country of the world, abounding with rich "and opulent cities, which seemed to offer themselves an " easy prey: that Asia, abandoned to be devoured by the in-"satiable avarice of the proconsuls, the inexorable cruelty of tax-gatherers, and the flagrant injustice of corrupt "judges, held the name of Roman in abhorrence, and im-" patiently expected them as her deliverers: that they fol-" lowed him not so much to a war as to assured victory and "certain spoils." The army answered this discourse with universal shouts of joy, and re-iterated protestations of service and fidelity.

a Justin. 1. xxxviii. c- 3—7. b I have abridged this discourse extremely, which Justin repeats at length, as it stood in Trogus Pompeius, of whom he is only the epitomiser The discourse is a specimen of that excellent historian's style, and ought to make us very much

regret the loss of his writings.

c Nune se diversam belli conditionero ingredi. Nam neque coslo Asiæ esse temperatius aliud, nec solo fertilius, nec urbium multitudine amœnius ; magnamtemperature stude, are too prepaire, nee to the manufacturine machine; magnament que temporis partem, non ut militiam, sed ut festan diem, acturos, bello dubium facili magis an uberi;—tantumque se avida expessat Asia, ut etiam vocibus vocet; adeo illis odium Romanorum incussit rapacitas proconsulum, sectio publicanorum; culumnase litium. Justin.—Sectio publicanorum in this passage properly signifies the forcible male of the goods of those who for default or payment of taxes and imposts had their estates and effects serized on and sold by the publicans Calumniae litium are the unjust quirks and chicanery, which served as presents for depriving the righ of their estates, either upon account of mass of under some other colour.

The Romans had formed three armies out of their troops in the several parts of Asia Minor. The first was commanded by Cassius, who had the government of the province of Pergamus; the second by Manius Aquilius; the third by Q. Oppius, proconsul in the province of Pamphylia. Each of them had 40,000 men, including the cavalry. Besides these troops, Nicomedes had 50,000 foot and 6000 horse. They began the war, as I have already observed, without waiting for orders from Rome, and carried it on with so much negligence and so little conduct, that they were all three defeated on different occasions, and their armies ruined. Aquilius and Oppius themselves were taken prisoners and treated with all kinds of insults. Mithridates, considering Aquilius as the principal author of the war, treated him with the highest indigni-He made him pass in review before the troops, and presented him as a sight to the people. mounted on an ass, obliging him to cry out with a loud voice, that he was Manius Aquilius. At other times he obliged him to walk on foot with his hands fastened by a chain to a horse, that drew him along. At last he made him swallow molten lead, and put him to death with the most exquisite torments. The people of Mitylene had treacherously delivered him up to Mithridates at a time when he was sick, and had retired to their city for the recovery of his health.

Mithridates, who was desirous of gaining the people's hearts by his reputation for clemency, sent home all the Greeks he had taken prisoners, and supplied them with provisions for their journey. That instance of his goodness and lenity opened the gates of all the cities to him. The people came out to meet him every where with acclamations of joy. They gave him excessive praises, called him the preserver, the father of the people, the deliverer of Asia, and applied to him all the other names by which Bacchus was denominated, to which he had a just title, for he passed for the prince of his time who could drink most without being disordered; a quality he valued himself upon, and thought much to his honour.

The fruits of his first victories were the conquest of all Bithynia, from which Nicomedes was driven; of Phrygia and Mysia, lately made Roman provinces; of Lycia, Pamphylia, Paphlagonia, and several other countries.

Having found, at Stratonicea, a young maid of exquisite beauty, named Monima, he took her along with him in his

train.

c Mithridates, considering that the Romans, and all the Italians in general, who were at that time in Asia Minor upon

nil. n. 7.

a Diod in Excerpt. Vales. p. 401. Athen. l. v. p. 213. Cic Oraz pro Flace. 60 b Flut. Sympos. l. j. p. 624. c. A. M. 3916. Ant. J C. 88. Appian p. 185. Cic. in Orac pro lege Ma.

different affairs, carried on secret intrigues much to the prejudice of his interests, sent private orders from Ephesus, where he then was, to the governors of the provinces and magistrates of the cities of Asia Minor, to massacre them all upon a day fixed. The women, children, and domestics, were included in this proscription. To these orders was annexed a prohibition to give interment to those who should be killed. Their estates and effects were to be confiscated for the use of the king and the murderers. A severe fine was laid upon such as should conceal the living or bury the dead, and a reward appointed for whoever discover ed those who were hid. Liberty was given to the slaves who killed their masters, and debters forgiven half their debts for killing their creditors. The repetition only of this dreadful order is enough to make one tremble with horror. What then must have been the desolation in all those provinces when it was put in execution! 80,000 Romans or Italians were butchered in consequence of it. Some make the slain amount to almost twice that number.

b Being informed that there was a great treasure at Cos, he sent people thither to seize it. Cleopatra, queen of Egypt, had deposited it there when she undertook the war in Phoenicia against her son Lathyrus. Besides this treasure, they found 800 talents, (800,000 crowns,) which the Jews in Asia Minor had deposited there when they saw the war ready to

break out.

c All those, who had found means to escape this general slaughter in Asia, had taken refuge in Rhodes, which received them with joy and affor led them a secure retreat. Mithridates laid siege to that city ineffectually, which he was soon obliged to raise, after having been in danger of being taken himself in a sea-fight, wherein he lost many of his

ships.

d When he had made himself master of Asia Minor, Mithridates sent Archelaus, one of his generals, with an army of 120,000 men, into Greece. That general took Athens, and chose it for his residence, giving all orders from thence in regard to the war on that side. During his stay there, he engaged most of the cities and states of Greece in the interests of his master. He reduced Delos by force, which had revolted from the Athenians, and re-instated them in the possession of it. He sent them the sacred treasure, kept in that island by Aristion, to whom he gave 2,000 men as a guard for the money. Aristion was an Athenian philosopher,

a Ir uno die, tota Asia, tot in civitatibus, uno nuntio atque una literarum sig-nificatione, suves Romanos necandos trucidandosque denouavit. Cic. b Appian. p. 186—198. Diod., nn Excerpt pp. 402. d Piut. in Sylla, p. 458—461. Appian. in Mithrid. p. 188—197.

of the sect of Epicurus. He employed the 2,000 men under his command to secure to himself the supreme authority at Athens, where he exercised a most cruel tyranny, putting many of their citizens to death, and sending many to Mithridates, upon pretence that they were of the Roman faction.

"Such was the state of affairs when Sylla was charged with the war against Mithridates. He set out immediately for Greece with five legions and some cohorts and cavalry. Mithridates was at that time at Pergamus, where he distributed riches, governments, and other rewards, to his

friends.

Upon Sylla's arrival, all the cities opened their gates to him, except Athens, which, subjected to the tyrant Aristion's yoke, was obliged unwillingly to oppose him. The Roman general, having entered Attica, divided his troops into two bodies, the one of which he sent to besiege Aristion in the city of Athens, and with the other he marched in person to the port Piræus, which was a kind of second city, where Archelaus had shut himself up, relying upon the strength of the place, the walls being almost 60 feet high, and entirely of hewn stone. The work was indeed very strong, and had been raised by the order of Pericles in the Peloponnesian war; when, the hopes of victory depending solely upon this port, he had fortified it to the utmost of his power.

The height of the walls did not amaze Sylla. He employed all sorts of engines in battering it, and made continual assaults. If he would have waited a little, he might have taken the higher city without striking a blow, which was reduced by famine to the last extremity. But, being in haste to return to Rome, and apprehending the changes that might happen there in his absence, he spared neither danger, attack, nor expense, in order to hasten the conclusion of that war. Without enumerating the rest of the warlike stores and equipage, 20,000 mutes were perpetually employed in working the machines only. Wood happening to fall short, from the great consumption made of it in the machines. which were often either broken and spoiled by the vast weight they carried or burnt by the enemy, he did not spare the sacred groves. He cut down the beautiful avenues of the Academy and Lycætum, which were the finest walks in the suburbs and planted with the finest trees, and caused the high walls that joined the port to the city to be demolished. in order to make use of the ruins in erecting his works and carrying on his approaches.

As he had occasion for abundance of money in this war, and endeavoured to attach the soldiers to his interests, and to animate them by great rewards, he had recourse to the

inviolable treasures of the temples, and caused the finest and most precious gifts, consecrated at Epidaurus and Olympia, to be brought from thence. He wrote to the Amphictyons assembled at Delphos, "That they would act wisely "in sending him the treasures of the god, because they would "be more secure in his hands; and that, if he should be obliged to make use of them, he would return the value after the war." At the same time he sent one of his friends, named Gaphis, a native of Phocis, to Delphos, to re-

ceive all those treasures by weight. When Caphis arrived at Delphos, he was afraid, through reverence for the god, to meddle with the consecrated gifts, and bewailed with tears, in the presence of the Amphictyons, the necessity imposed upon him. Upon which, some person there having said that he heard the sound of Apollo's lyre from the inside of the sanctuary, Caphis, whether he really believed it or was willing to take advantage of that occasion to strike Sylla with a religious awe, wrote him an account of what had happened. Sylla, deriding his simplicity, replied, "That he was surprised he should not com-" prehend that singing was a sign of joy, and by no means " of anger and resentment; and therefore he had nothing to " do but to take the treasures boldly, and be assured that the " god saw him do so with pleasure, and gave them to him, " himself."

Plutarch, on this occasion, notices the difference between the ancient Roman generals and those of the times we now speak of. The former, whom merit alone had raised to office, and who had no views from their employments but the public good, knew how to make the soldiers respect and obey them without descending to use low and unworthy methods for that purpose. They commanded troops that were steady, disciplined, and well inured to execute the orders of their generals without reply or delay. Truly kings, says Plutarch, in the grandeur and nobility of their sentiments, but simple and modest private persons in their train and equipage, they put the state to no other expense in the discharge of their offices than what was reasonable and necessary, conceiving it more shameful in a captain to flatter his soldiers than to fear his enemies. Things were much changed in the times we now speak of. The Roman generals, abandoned to insatiable ambition and luxury, were obliged to make themselves slaves to their soldiers, and to buy their services by gifts proportioned to their avidity, and often by the toleration and impunity of the greatest crimes.

Sylla, in consequence, was perpetually in extreme want of imoney to satisfy his troops, and then more than ever for car-

[&]amp; Aplot es rate duxais baoidindi, nai rais danavais toredeis dules.

rying on the siege in which he had engaged, the success of which seemed to him of the highest importance, both with respect to his honour and even his safety. He was desirous of depriving Mithridates of the only city he had left in Greece, and which, by preventing the Romans from passing into Asia, made all hopes of conquering that prince vain, and would oblige Sylla to return shamefully into Italy, where he would have found more terrible enemies in Marius and his faction. He was besides sensibly galled by the keen raillery which Aristion vented every day against him and his wife Metella.

It is not easy to say whether the attack or defence were conducted with most vigour; for both sides behaved with incredible courage and resolution. The sallies were frequent, and attended with almost battles in form, in which the slaughter was great, and the loss generally not very unequal. The besieged would not have been in a condition to have made so vigorous a defence if they had not received

several considerable reinforcements by sea.

What did them most damage was the secret treachery of two Athenian slaves, who were in the Piræus. Those slaves, whether out of affection to the Roman party or desirous of providing for their own safety in case the place was taken, wrote upon leaden balls all that passed within, and threw them from slings to the Romans. So that whatever prudent measures Archelaus took, who defended the Piræus whilst Aristion cammanded in the city, nothing succeeded. He resolved to make a general sally; the traitors slung a leaden ball with this intelligence upon it: "To-morrow, at "such an hour, the foot will attack your works and the "horse your camp." Sylla laid ambushes, and repulsed the besieged with loss. A convoy of provisions was in the night to have been thrown into the city, which was in want of every thing. Upon advice of the same kind the convoy was intercepted.

Notwithstanding all these disappointments, the Athenians defended themselves like lions. They found means either to burn most of the machines erected against the wall, or by undermining them to threw them down and break them to

pieces.

The Romans, on their side, behaved with no less vigour. By the help of mines also they made a way to the bottom of the walls, under which they hollowed the ground; and having propped the foundation with beams of wood, they afterwards set fire to the props with a great quantity of pitch, sulphur, and tow. When those beams were burnt, part of the wall fell down with a horrible noise, and a large breach was opened, through which the Romans advanced to the as-

sault. The battle continued a great while with equal ardour on both sides, but the Romans were at length obliged to retire. The next day they renewed the attack. The besieged had built a new wall during the night in the form of a crescent, in the place of the other which had fallen, and the

Romans found it impossible to force it.

Sylla, discouraged by so obstinate a defence, resolved to attack the Pirzus no longer, and confined himself to reduce the place by famine. The city, on the other side, was at the last extremity. A bushel of barley had been sold in it for 1000 drachmas, (about 25% sterling.) The inhabitants did not only eat the grass and roots, which they found about the citadel, but the flesh of horses, and their leather shoes, which they boiled soft. In the midst of the public misery, the tyrant passed his days and nights in revelling. The senators and priests went to throw themselves at his feet, conjuring him to have pity on the city, and to obtain a capitulation from Sylla: he dispersed them with arrow-shot, and in that manner drove them from his presence.

He did not demand a cessation of arms, nor send deputies to Sylla till reduced to the last extremity. As those deputies made no proposals, and asked nothing of him to the purpose, but ran on in praising and extolling Theseus, Eumolpus, and the exploits of the Athenians against the Medes, Sylla was tired with their discourse, and interrupted them, by saying, "Gentlemen haranguers, you may go back again, and keep your rhetorical flourishes for yourselves. For my part, I

"was not sent to Athens to be informed of your ancient "prowess, but to chastise your modern revolt."

During this audience, some spies, having entered the city. overheard by chance some old men talking in the . Ceramicus, and blaming the tyrant exceedingly for not guarding a certain part of the wall, that was the only place by which the enemy might easily scale the walls. At their return into the camp, they related what they had heard to Sylla. The parley had been to no purpose. Sylla did not neglect the intelligence given him. The next night he went in person to take a view of the place; and, finding the wall actually accessible, he ordered ladders to be raised against it, began the attack there, and, having made himself master of the wall after a weak resistance, entered the city. He would not suffer it to be set on fire, but abandoned it to be plundered by the soldiers, who in several houses found human flesh, which had been dressed to be eaten. A dreadful slaughter ensued. The next day all the slaves were sold by auction, and liberty was granted to the citizens who had escaped the swords of the soldiers, who were very few in number. He besieged the citadel the same day, where Aristion, and those that had taken refuge there, were soon so much reduced by famine, that they were forced to surrender themselves. The tyrant, his guards, and all who had been in any office under him, were put to death.

Some few days after, Sylla made himself master of the Piræus, and burnt all its fortifications, especially the arsenal, which had been built by Philo, the celebrated architect, and was a wonderful fabric. Archelaus, by the help of his

fleet, had retired to Munichia, another port of Attica.

4 This year was fatal to the arms of Mithridates. Taxiles. one of his generals, arrived in Greece from Thrace and Macedonia, with an army of 100,000 foot and 10,000 horse. with 90 chariots armed with scythes. Archelaus, that general's brother, was at that time in the port of Munichia, and would neither remove from the sea nor come to a battle with the Romans; but he endeavoured to protract the war, and cut of their provisions. This was very prudent conduct, for Sylla began to be in want of them: so that famine obliged him to quit Attica, and to enter the fruitful plains of Boeotia, where Hortensius joined him. Their troops having united, they took possession of a fertile eminence in the midst of the plains of Elatea, at the foot of which ran a rivulet. When they had formed their camp, the enemies could discover at one view their small number, which amounted to only 15,000 foot and 1,500 horse. This induced Archelaus's generals to press him in the warmest manner to proceed to action. They did not obtain his consent without great difficulty. They immediately began to move, and covered the whole plain with horses, chariots, and innumerable troops; for, when the two brothers were joined, their army was very formidable. The noise and cries of so many nations, and so many thousands of men preparing for battle, the pomp and magnificence of their array, were truly terrible. The brightness of their arms, magnificently adorned with gold and silver, and the lively colours of the Median and Scythian coats of arms, mingled with the glitter of brass and steel, darted forth as it were flashes of lightning. which, whilst it dazzled the sight, filled the soul with ter-

The Romans, seized with dread, kept close within their entrenchments. Sylla, not being able by his discourse and remonstrances so remove their fear, and not being willing to force them to fight in their present universal discouragement, was obliged to lie still, and suffer, though with great impatience, the bravodoes and insulting derision of the Barbarians.

a A. M. 3918. Ant. J. C. 86. Pluts in Sylla, p. 461-466 Appian. p. 196-203.

They conceived so great a contempt for him in consequence, that they neglected to observe any discipline. Few of them kept within their entrenchments; the rest, for the sake of plunder, dispersed in great troops, and straggled to a considerable distance, even several days journey from the camp. They plundered and ruined some cities in the neighbourhood.

Sylla was in the utmost despair when he saw the cities of the allies destroyed before his eyes, for want of power to make his army fight. He at last thought of a stratagem. which was to give the troops no repose, and to keep them incessantly at work in turning the Cephisus, a little river which was near the camp, and in digging deep and large trenches, under pretence of their better security, but in fact, that, by being tired of such great fatigues, they might prefer the hazard of a battle to the continuance of their labour. His stratagem was successful. After having worked without intermision three days, as Sylla, according to custom, was taking a view of their progress, they cried out to him with one voice, to lead them against the enemy. Sylla suffered himself to be exceedingly intreated, and did not comply for some time : but when he saw their ardour increase from his opposition, he made them stand to their arms, and marched against the enemy.

The battle was fought near Chæronea. The enemy had possessed themselves, with a great body of troops, of a very advantageous post, called Thurium. It was the ridge of a steep mountain, which extended itself upon the left flank of the Romans, and was very proper to check their motions. Two men of Chæronea came to Sylla, and promised him to drive the enemy from this post, if he would give them a small number of chosen troops; which he did. In the mean time he drew up his army in battle, divided his horse between the two wings, taking the right himself, and giving the left to Murena. Galba and Hortensius formed a second line. Hortensius, on the left, supported Murena, whilst Galba, on

the right, did the same for Sylla. The Barbarians had already begun to extend their horse and light-armed foot in a

large compass, with design to surround the second line, and charge it in the rear.

At that instant the two men of Chæronea, having gained the top of Thurium with their small troop, without being perceived by the enemy, showed themselves on a sudden. The Barbarians, surprised and terrified immediately took to flight. Pressing against each other upon the declivity of the mountain, they ran precipitately down before the enemy, who charged and pursued them down the hill with their swords at their backs; so that about 3,000 men were killed

upon the mountain. Of those who escaped, some fell into the hands of Murena, who had just before formed in order of battle. Having marched against them, he intercepted and made a great slaughter of them: the rest, who endeavoured to regain their camp, fell in upon the main body of their troops with so much precipitation, that they threw the whole army into terror and confusion, and made their generals lose much time in restoring order, which was one of the

principal causes of their defeat.

Sylla, taking advantage of this disorder, marched against them with so much vigour, and passed the space between the two armies with such rapidity, that he prevented the effect of their chariots armed with scythes. The force of these chariots depended upon the length of their course, which gave impetuosity and violence to their motion; instead of which, a short space that did not leave room for their career, rendered them useless and ineffectual. This the Barbarians experienced at this time. The first chariots came on so slowly, and with so little effect, that the Romans, easily pushing them back, with great noise and loud laughter called for more, as was customary at Rome in the chariot-races of the Circus.

After those chariots were removed, the two main bodies came to blows. The Barbarians presented their long pikes, and kept close order, with their bucklers joined, so that they could not be broken; and the Romans threw down their javelins, and with sword in hand thrust aside the enemy's pikes, in order to join and charge them with great fury. What increased their animosity was the sight of 15,000 slaves whom the king's generals had spirited from them by the promise of their liberty, and posted them amongst the heavy-armed foot. Those slaves had so much resolution and bravery, that they sustained the shock of the Roman foot without giving way. Their battalions were so deep and so well closed, that the Romans could neither break nor move them, till the light-armed foot of the second line had put them into disorder by the discharge of their arrows, and a shower of stones from their slings, which forced them to give ground.

Archelaus having made his right wing advance to surround the left of the Romans, Hortensius led on the troops under his command to take him in flank; which Archelaus seeing he ordered 2000 horse to wheel about. Hortensius, upon the point of being overpowered by that great body of horse, retired by degrees towards the mountains, perceiving himself too far from the main body, and upon the point of being surrounded by the enemy. Sylla, with great part of

his right wing, which had not yet engaged, marched to his relief. From the dust raised by those troops, Archelaua judged what they were, and, leaving Hortensius, he turned about towards the place Sylla had quitted, in hopes he should find no difficulty in defeating the right wing, which would

now be without its general.

Taxiles at the same time led on his foot, armed with brazen shields, against Murena; whilst each side raised great shouts, which made the neighbouring hills resound. Sylla halted at the noise, not knowing well to which side he should first hasten. At length he thought it most expedient to return to his former post and support his right wing. He therefore sent Hortensius to assist Murena with four cohorts, and, taking the fifth with him, he flew to his right wing, which he found engaged in battle with Archelaus, neither side having the advantage. But, as soon as he appeared, that wing taking new courage from the presence of their general. opened their way through the troops of Archelaus, put them to flight, and pursued them vigorously for a considerable

After this great success, without losing a moment, he marched to the aid of Murena. Finding him also victorious, and that he had defeated Taxiles, he joined him in the pursuit of the vanquished. A great number of the Barbarians were killed on the plain, and a much greater cut to pieces in endeavouring to gain their camp; so that, of so many thousand men, only 10,000 escaped, who fled to the city of Chalcis. Sylla wrote in his memoirs, that only 14 of his men were missing, and that two of them returned the same evening.

b To celebrate so great a victory, he gave music-games at Thebes, and caused judges to come from the neighbouring Grecian cities to distribute the prizes; for he had an implacable aversion for the Thebans. He even deprived them of half their territory, which he consecrated to Apollo Pythius and Jupiter Olympius, and decreed, that the money he had taken out of the temples of those gods should be repaid out

of their revenues.

a Chalcaspidea

These games were no sooner over than he received advice that L. Valerius Flaccus, of the adverse party, (for at this time the divisions between Marius and Sylla were at the highest) had been elected consul, and had already crossed the Ionian sea with an army, in appearance against Mithridates, but in reality against himself. For this reason he began, without delay, his march to Thessaly, as with design to meet him. But, being arrived at the city of c Melitea, news came to him, from all sides, that all the places he had left in b A. M. 1919. Aut. J. C. SR.

his rear were plundered by another of the king's armies, stronger and more numerous than the first. For, Dorylaus had arrived at Chalcis with a great fleet, on board of which were 80,000 men, the best equipped, the most warlike and disciplined, of all Mithridates's troops, and had thrown himself into Bœotia, and possessed himself of the whole country, in order to bring Sylla to a battle. Archelaus would have dissuaded him from that design, by giving him an exact account of the battle he had so lately lost; but his counsel and remonstrances had no effect. He soon knew that the advice that had been given him was highly reasonable and judicious.

He chose the plain of Orchomenus for the field of battle. Sylla caused ditches to be dug on each side of the plain, to deprive the enemy of the advantages of an open country. in which their cavalry could act, and to remove them towards the marshes. The Barbarians fell furiously on the workmen, dispersed them, and put to flight the troops that supported them. Sylla seeing his army flying in this manner, quitted his horse immediately, and seizing one of his ensigns, he pushed forwards towards the enemy through those that fled, crying to them, "For me, Romans, I think it glorious to die "here. But for you, when you shall be asked, where you " abandoned your general, remember to say it was at Orcho-"menus." They could not suffer those reproaches, and returned to the charge with such fury, that they made Archelaus's troops turn their backs. The Barbarians came on again in better order than before, and were again repulsed with greater loss.

The next day, at sun-rise, Sylla led back his troops to-wards the enemy's camp, to continue his trenches, and falling upon those who were detached to skirmish and drive away the workmen, he charged them so rudely, that he put them to flight. These runaways threw the troops who had continued in the camp into such terror, that they were afraid to stay to defend it. Sylla entered it pell-mell with those who fled, and made himself master of it. The marshes, in a moment, were dyed with blood, and the lake filled with dead bodies. The enemies, in different attacks, lost the greatest part of their troops. Archelaus continued a great while hid in the marshes, and escaped at last to Chalcis.

while not in the marshes, and escaped at last to Chaicis.

The news of all these defeats threw Mithridates into great consternation. However, as that prince was by nature fruitful in resources, he did not lose courage, and applied himself to repair his losses by making new levies. But, from the fear that his ill success might give birth to some revolt or conspiracy against his person, as had already happened, he took the bloody precaution of putting all he suspected te

death, without sparing even his best friends.

"He was not more successful in Asia, himself, than his generals had been in Greece. Fimbria, who commanded a Roman army there, beat the remainder of his best troops. He pursued the vanquished as far as the gates of Pergamus, where Mithridates resided, and obliged him to quit that place himself, and retire to Pitane, a maritime place in the Troad. Fimbria pursued him thither, and invested him by land. But, as he had no fleet to do the same by sea, he sen: to Lucullus, who was cruising in the neighbouring seas with the Roman fleet, and represented to him, that he might acquire immortal glory by seizing the person of Mithridates, who could not escape him, and by putting an end to so important a war. Fimbria and Lucullus were of two different factions. The latter would not be concerned in the affairs of the other; so that Mithridates escaped by sea to Mitylene, and extricated himself out of the hands of the Romans. This fault cost them very dear, and is not unusual in states where misunderstandings subsist between the ministers and generals of the army, which make them neglect the public good, lest they should contribute to the glory of their rivals.

Lucullus afterwards twice defeated Mithridates's fleet and and gained two great victories over him. This happy success was the more surprising, as it was not expected that Lucullus would distinguish himself by military exploits. He had passed his youth in the studies of the bar: and, during his being quæstor in Asia, the province had always enjoyed peace. But so happy a genius as his did not want to be taught by experience, which is not to be acquired by lessons, and is generally the growth of many years. He supplied that defect, in some measure, by employing the whole time of his journeys, by land and sea, partly by asking questions of persons experienced in the art of war, and partly in instructing himself by the reading of history. So that he arrived in Asia a complete general, though he had left Rome with only a moderate knowledge in the art of war . Let our young warriors consider this with due attention, and observe in what manner great men are formed.

Whilst Sylla was very successful in Greece, the faction that opposed him, and at that time engrossed all power at

a Plut in Sylia, p. 466—468. Id. in Lucul. p. 493. Appian. p. 304—210. 6 Ad Mitheidateum bellum missus a senatu 100n modo opinionem vicit omium qué de vertue ejue crit, sed etiam glorian sup-riorum. Idque co fuit mirabitus, quod ab co laus imperatoria non expectabatur, qui adelescentiam in formsi opera, questure dujurmum tempus, Murena bellum in Ponto gerente, in Aijæ pace consumpserat. Sed incredibilis quædam ingenis magnitudo non denderavit sudecilem usas disselphann. Itaque cum totum iter et mavigationem Consu apasset parum in percontamalo a peritis, partim in rebus gertis jegendis; in Aman factus imperator venit, cum esset Roma profectus rei militaris rudis-Gir. Acad. Quæst. J. vi. p. 2.

Rome, had declared him an enemy of the commonwealth. Cinna and Carbo treated the noblest and most considerable persons with every kind of cruelty and injustice. Most of these, to avoid this insupportable tyranny, had chosen to retire to Sylla's camp, as to a port of safety; so that in a small time Sylla had a little senate about him. His wife, Metella. having escaped with great difficulty with her children. brought him an account that his enemies had burnt his house and ravaged his lands, and begged him to depart immediately to the relief of those who remained in Rome, and were upon the point of being made victims of the same fury.

Sylla was in the greatest perplexity. On the one side, the miserable condition to which his country was reduced inclined him to march directly to its relief; on the other, he could not resolve to leave imperfect so great and important an affair as the war with Mithridates. Whilst he was under this cruel embarrassment, a merchant came to him to treat with him in secret from the general Archelaus, and to make him some proposals of an accommodation. He was so exceedingly rejoiced when this man had explained his commission, that he made all possible haste to have a conference with that general.

They had an interview upon the sea-coast, near the little city of Delium. Archelaus, who was not ignorant how important it was to Sylla to have it in his power to repass into Italy, proposed to him the uniting his interests with those of Mithridates; and added, that his master would supply him with money, troops, and ships, to maintain a war against the

faction of Cinna and Marius.

Sylla, without seeming offended at first with such proposals, exhorted him on his side to withdraw himself from the slavery in which he lived, under an imperious and cruel prince. He added, that he might take upon him the title of king in his government, and offered to have him declared the ally and friend of the Roman people, if he would deliver up to him Mithridates's fleet under his command. Archelaus rejected such a proposal with indignation, and even expressed to the Roman general, how much he thought himself affronted by the supposition of his being capable of such treachery. Upon which Sylla, assuming the air of grandeur and dignity so natural to the Romans, said to him: "If, " being only a slave, and at best but an officer of a Barbarian

"king, you look upon it as a baseness to quit the service of "your master, how dared you to propose the abandoning

[&]quot;the interests of the republic to such a Roman as myself? "Do you imagine our condition and state of affairs to be " equal? Have you forgotten my victories? Do you not re-" member that you are the same Archelaus whom I have

" defeated in two battle, and forced in the last to hide him-

"self in the marshes of Orchomenus?"

Archelaus, confounded by so haughty an answer, sustained himself no longer in the sequel of the negotiation. Sylla got whe ascendant entirely, and, dictating the law as victor, proposed the following conditions: "That Mithridates should "renounce Asia and Paphlagonia: that he should restore "Bithynia to Nicomedes, and Cappadocia to Ariobarzanes: "that he should pay the Romans 2000 talents, (about 300, " 000% sterling) for the expenses of the war, and deliver up "to them 70 armed galleys, with their whole equipment; " and that Sylla, on his side, should secure to Mithridates " the rest of his dominions, and cause him to be declared the "friend and ally of the Roman people." Archelaus seemed to approve those conditions, and dispatched a courier immediately to communicate them to Mithridates. Sylla set out for the Hellespont, carrying Archelaus with him, whom he treated with great honours.

He received Mithridates's ambassadors at Larissa, who came to declare to him, that their master accepted and ratified all the other articles, but that he desired he would not deprive him of Paphlagonia, and that, as to the 70 galleys, he could by no means comply with that article. Sylla, offended at this refusal, answered them in an angry tone: "What say you? Would Mithridates keep possession of " Paphlagonia, and does he refuse me the galleys I demand-"ed? I expected to have seen him return me thanks upon "his knees, if I should have only left him the hand with which "he butchered 100,000 Romans. He will change his note "when I go over to Asia, though at present, in the midst of "his court at Pergamus, he meditates plans for a war he "never saw." Such was the lofty style of Sylla, who gave Mithridates to understand at the same time, that he would not talk such language had he been present at the past bat-

The ambassadors, terrified with this answer, made no reply. Archelaus endeavoured to soften Sylla, and promised him that he would induce Mithridates to consent to all the articles. He set out for that purpose, and Sylla after having

laid waste the country, returned into Macedonia.

"Archelaus, upon his return, joined him at the city of Philippi, and informed him that Mithridates would accept the proposed conditions; but that he exceedingly desired to have a conference with him. What made him earnest for this interview was his fear of Fimbria, who, having killed Flaccus, of whom mention has been made before, and put himself at the head of that consul's army, was advancing by great

marches against Mithridates; which determined that prince to make peace with Sylla. They had an interview at Dar-dania, a city of the Troad. Mithridates had with him 200 galleys, 20,000 foot, 6000 horse, and a great number of chariots armed with scythes: and Sylla had only four cohorts and 200 horse in his company. When Mithridates advanced to meet him, and offered him his hand, Sylla asked him, whether he accepted the proposed conditions? As the king kept silence, Sylla continued, "Do you not know, Mithridates, "that it is for suppliants to speak, and for the victorious to "hear and be silent?" Upon this Mithridates began a long apology, endeavouring to ascribe the cause of the war partly to the gods and partly to the Romans. Sylla interrupted him: and after having made a long detail of the violences and inhumanities he had committed, he demanded of him, a second time, whether he would ratify the conditions which Archelaus had laid before him. Mithridates surprised at the haughtiness and pride of the Roman general, having answered in the affirmative. Sylla then received his embraces, and. afterwards presenting the kings Ariobarzanes and Nicomedes to him, he reconciled them to each other. Mithridates, after the delivery of the 70 galleys entirely equipped and 500 archers, re-embarked.

Sylla saw plainly that this treaty of peace was highly disagreeable to his troops. They could not bear that a prince, who of all kings was the most mortal enemy to Rome, and who in one day had caused 100,000 Roman citizens, dispersed in Asia, to be put to the sword, should be treated with so much favour and even honour, and declared the friend and ally of the Romans, whilst almost still recking with their blood. Sylla, to justify his conduct, gave them to understand, that, if he had rejected his proposals of peace, Mithridates, on his refusal, would not have failed to treat with Fimbria; and that if those two enemies had joined their forces, they would have obliged him either to abandon his conquests, or hazard a battle against troops, superior in number, under the command of two great captains, who in one day might have

deprived him of the fruit of all his victories.

Thus ended the first war with Mithridates, which had lasted four years, and in which Sylla had destroyed more than 160,000 of the enemy; recovered Greece, Macedonia, Ionia, Asia, and many other provinces, of which Mithridates had possessed himself; and, having deprived him of a great part of his fleet, compelled him to confine himself within the bounds of his hereditary dominions. *But what is most to be admir-

e Vix quidquam in Syllæ operibus élarius duxerim quam quod, cum per triennium Cinaame Mariannaque partes Italiam obsiderent, acque illativaren se hellam ini dissimulavit, nec quod erat in manibus omisit; existimavitque ante

ed in Sylla is, that, during three years, whilst the factions of Marius and Cinna had enslaved Italy, he did not dissemble his intending to turn his arms against them, and yet did not discontinue the war he had begun, convinced that it was necessary to conquer the foreign enemy before he reduced and punished those at home. He was also highly laudable for his constancy in not hearkening to any proposals from Mithridates, who offered him considerable aid against his enemies, till that prince had accepted the conditions of peace he prescribed him.

Some days after, Sylla began his march against Fimbria, who was encamped under the walls of Thyatira, in Lydia; and, having marked out a camp near his, he began his entrenchments. Fimbria's soldiers, coming out, unarmed, ran to salute and embrace those of Sylla, and assisted them with great pleasure in forming their lines Fimbria, seeing this change in his troops, and fearing Sylla as an irreconciliable enemy, from whom he could expect no mercy, after having attempted in vain to get him assassinated, killed himself.

Sylla condemned Asia in general to pay 20,000 a talents, and, besides that fine, rifled individuals exceedingly, by abandoning their houses to the insolence and rapaciousness of his troops, whom he quartered upon them, and who lived at discretion as in conquered cities. For he gave orders that every host should pay each soldier quartered on him four drachmas a day, and entertain at table himself, and as many of his friends as he should think fit to invite; that each captain should have fifty c drachmas, and, besides that, a robe to wear in the house.

and another when he went abroad.

d After having thus punished Asia, he set out from Ephesus with all his ships, and arrived the third day at the Pirzus. Having been initiated in the great mysteries, he took for his own use the library of Apellicon, in which were the works of Aristotle. That philosopher, at his death, had left his writings to Theophrastus, one of his most illustrious disciples. The latter had transferred them to Neleus, of Scepsis, a city in the neighbourhood of Pergamus, in Asia; after whose death those works fell into the hands of his heirs, ignorant persons, who kept them shut up in a chest. When the kings of Pergamus began to collect industriously all sorts of books for their library, as the city of Scepsis was dependent upon them, those heirs, apprehending these works would be taken from

frangendum hostem, quam uloiscendum civem; repulsoque externo metu, ubi quod alienum esset vicisset, superaret quod erat domesticum. Vell. Patero, l. ii.

About three millions sterling.

[&]amp; About two shillings.

e About five-and twenty shillings. d Plut in Syll, p. 469. Strab. l. ziii. p. 609. Athan. l. vii. p. 214. Laurt. in Theogh

them, thought proper to hide them in a vault under ground. where they remained almost 130 years; till the heirs of Neleus's family, who after several generations were fallen into extreme poverty, brought them out to sell to Apellicon, a rich Athenian, who sought every where after the most curious books for his library. As they were very much damaged, by the length of time and the damp place where they had lain, Apellicon had copies immediately taken of them, in which there were many chasms; because the originals were either rotted in many places, or worm-eaten and obliterated. These blanks, words, and letters, were filled up as well as they could be by conjecture, and that in some places with sufficient want of judgment. From hence arose the many difficulties in those works which have ever since exercised the learned world. Apellicon being dead some small time before Sylla's arrival at Athens, he seized upon his library, and with these works of Aristotle, which he found in it, enriched his own at Rome. A famous grammarian of those times, named Tyrannion, who lived then at Rome, having a great desire for these works of Aristotle, obtained permission from Sylla's librarian to take a copy of them. That copy was communicated to Andronicus, the Rhodian, who afterwards imparted it to the public, and to him the world is obliged for the works of that great philosopher.

SECT. II.

Second and third war with Mithridates. Tragical end of his sisters and wives.

a Sylla, on setting out for Rome, had left the government of Asia to Murena, with the two legions that had served under Fimbria, to keep the province in obedience. This Murena is the father of him for whom Cicero made the fine oration which bears his name. His son at this time made

his first campaigns under him.

After Sylla's departure, Mithridates, being returned to Pontus, turned his arms against the people of Colchis and the Bosphorus, who had revolted against him. They first demanded his son Mithridates for their king, and, having obtained him, immediately returned to their duty. The king, imagining their conduct to proceed from his son's intrigues, took umbrage at it; and, having caused him to come to him, he ordered him to be bound with chains of gold, and soon after put him to death. That son had done him great services in the war against Fimbria. We see here a new instance of the jealousy which the excessive love of power is apt to excite, and to what a height the prince who aban-

[#] A. M. 3931. Ant. J. C. 83. Appian. p. 213-216.

dona himself to it is capable of carrying his suspicions against his own blood; always ready to proceed to the most fatal extremities, and to sacrifice whatever is dearest to him to the slightest distrust. As for the inhabitants of the Bosphorus, he prepared a great fleet and a numerous army, which gave reason to believe his designs were against the Romans. He had not indeed restored all Cappadocia to Ariobarzanes, but reserved part of it in his own hands; and he began to suspect Archelaus, as having engaged him in a peace equally shameful and disadvantageous.

When Archelaus perceived it, well knowing the master he had to deal with, he took refuge with Murena, and solicited him warmly to turn his arms against Mithridates. Murena, who passionately desired to obtain the honour of a triumph, suffered himself to be easily persuaded. He made an irruption into Cappadocia, and made himself master of Comana, the most powerful city of that kingdom. Mithridates sent ambassadors to him to complain of the violating the treaty the Romans had made with him. Murena replied that he knew of no treaty made with their master. There was, in reality, nothing reduced to writing on Sylla's part, the whole having passed by verbal agreement. In consequence, he continued to ravage the country, and took up his winter-quarters in it. Mithridates sent ambassadors to Rome, to make his complaints to Sylla' and the senate.

^a There came a commissioner from Rome, but without a decree of the senate, who publicly ordered Murena not to molest the king of Pontus. But, as they conferred together in private, this was looked upon as a mere collusion, and indeed Murena persisted in ravaging his country. Mithridates therefore took the field, and, having passed the river Halys, gave Murena battle, defeated him, and obliged him

to retire into Phrygia with very great loss.

b Sylla, who had been appointed dictator, not being able to suffer any longer that Mithridates, contrary to the treaty he had granted him, should be disquieted, sent Gabinius to Murena to order him in earnest to desist from making war with that prince, and to reconcile him with Ariobarzanes. He obeyed. Mithridates, having put one of his sons, only four years old, into the hands of Ariobarzanes, as a hostage, under that pretext retained the cities in which he had garrisons, promising no doubt to restore them in time. He then gave a great feast, in which he promised prizes for such as should excel the rest in drinking, eating, singing, and rallying; fit objects of emulation! Gabinius was the only one who did not think proper to enter these lists. Thus ended the second war with Mithridates, which lasted only three years. Murena, at his

return to Rome, received the honour of a triumph, to which

he had no great claim.

a Mithridates at length restored Cappadocia to Ariobarsanes, being compelled so to do by Sylla, who died the same year. But he contrived a stratagem to deprive him entirely of it. Tigranes had lately built a great city in Armenia, which, from his own name, he called Tigranocerta. Mithridates persuaded his son-in-law to conquer Cappadocia, and to transport the inhabitants into the new city, and the other parts of his dominions, that were not well peopled. He did so, and took away 300,000 souls. From thenceforth, whereever he carried his victorious arms, he acted in the same manner, for the better peopling of his own dominions.

b The extraordinary reputation of Sertorius, who had given the Romans terrible employment in Spain, made Mithridates conceive the thought of sending an embassy to him. in order to engage him to join forces against the common enemy. The flatterers, who compared him to Pyrrhus and Sertorius to Hannibal, insinuated, that the Romans, attacked at the same time on different sides, would never be able to oppose two such formidable powers, when the most able and experienced of generals should act in concert with the greatest of kings. He therefore sent ambassadors to Spain, with letters and instructions for treating with Sertorius; to whom they offered, in his name, a fleet and money to carry on the war, upon condition that he would suffer that prince to recover the provinces of Asia, which the necessity of his affairs had reduced him to abandon by the treaty he had made with Sylla.

As soon as those ambassadors arrived in Spain, and had opened their commission to Sertorius, he assembled his council, which he called the senate. They were unanimously of opinion, that he should accept that prince's offers with joy; and the rather, because so immediate and effective an aid as the offered fleet and money would cost him only a vain consent to an enterprise which it did not in any manner depend upon him to prevent. But Sertorius, with a truly Roman greatness of soul, protested, that he would never consent to any treaty injurious to the glory or interests of his country; and that he would not even desire a victory over his own enemies, that was not acquired by just and honourable methods. And, having made Mithridates's ambassadors come into the assembly, he declared to them, that he would suffer his master to keep Bithynia and Cappadocia, which were accustomed to be governed by kings, and to which the Ro-

a A. M. 3926. Ant. J. C. 78. 6 A. M. 3928. Ant. J. C. 76. Appian. p. 216, 217. Plut. in Sertes, p. 680, 281.

mans could have no just pretensions, but he would never consent that he should ever set his foot in Asia Minor, which appertained to the republic, and which he had renounced by a solemn treaty.

When this answer was related to Mithridates, it struck him with amazement; and he is affirmed to have said to his friends: "What orders may we not expect from Sertorius, "when he shall sit in the senate in the midst of Rome; who, "even now, confined upon the coast of the Atlantic ocean, "dictates bounds to our dominions, and declares war against "us, if we undertake any thing against Asia?" A treaty was however concluded and sworn to between them, to this effect: that Mithridates should have Bythynia and Cappadoca; that Sertorius should send him troops for that purpose, and one of his captains to command them; and that Mithridates, on his side, should pay Sertorius a 3000 talents down,

and give him 40 galleys.

The captain sent by Sertorius into Asia was a banished senator of Rome, who had taken refuge with him, named Marcus Marius, to whom Mithridates paid great honours. For, when Marius entered the cities, preceded by the fasces and axes, Mithridates followed him, well satisfied with the second place, and with only making the figure of a powerful, but inferior, ally in this proconsul's company. Such was at that time the Roman greatness, that the name alone of that potent republic obscured the splendour and power of the greatest kings. Mithridates, however, found his interest in this conduct. Marius, as authorized by the Roman people and senate, discharged most of the cities from paying the exorbitant taxes which Sylla had imposed on them; expressly declaring, that it was from Sertorius they received, and to him they were indebted for, that favour. So moderate and politic a conduct opened the gates of the cities to him without the help of arms, and the name alone of Sertorius made more conquests than all the forces of Mithridates.

b Nicomedes, king of Bithynia, died this year, and made the Roman people his heirs. His country became thereby, as I have observed elsewhere, a province of the Roman empire. Mithridates immediately formed a resolution to renew the war against them upon this occasion, and employed the greatest part of the year in making the necessary preparations for carrying it on with vigour. He believed, that, after the death of Sylla, and during the troubles with which the republic was agitated, the conjuncture was favourable

for re-entering upon the conquests he had given up.

c Instructed by his misfortunes and experience, he banish-

² About 452,000 pounds. 5 A. M. 3929 Am. J. C. 75. Appian. de Bello. Mithrid. p. 175. c Plut. in Lucal. p. 496.

ed from his army all armour adorned with gold and jewels, which he began to consider as the allurement of the victor, and not as the strength of those who wore them. He caused swords to be forged after the Roman fashion, with solid and weighty bucklers; he collected horses, rather well made and trained than magnificently adorned; assembled 120,000 foot, armed and disciplined like the Roman infantry, and 16,000 horse well equipped for service, besides 100 charists armed with long scythes, and drawn by four horses. He also fitted out a considerable number of galleys, which glittered no longer, as before, with gilt flags, but were filled with all sorts of arms. offensive and defensive, and provided immense sums of money for the pay and subsistence of the troops.

Mithridates had begun by seizing Paphlagonia and Bithynia. The province of Asia, which found itself exhausted by the exactions of the Roman tax-gatherers and usurers, to deliver themselves from their oppression, declared a second time for him. Such was the cause of the third Mithridatic

war, which subsisted almost 12 years.

The two consuls, Lucullus and Cotta, were sent against him, each of them with an army under him. Lucullus had Asia, Cilicia, and Cappadocia, for his province; the other

Bithynia and Propontis.

Whilst Lucullus was employed in reforming the rapaciousness and violence of the tax-gatherers and usurers, and in reconciling the people of the countries through which he passed, by giving them good hopes for the time to come. Cotta, who was aiready arrived, thought he had a favourable opportunity, in the absence of his colleague, to signalize himself by some great exploit. He therefore prepared to give Mithridates battle. The more he was told that Luculius was approaching, that he was already in Phrygia, and would soon arrive, the greater haste he made to fight, believing himself already assured of a triumph, and desirous of preventing his colleague from having any share in it. But he was beaten by sea and land. In the naval battle he lost 60 of his ships, with their whole complements; and in that by land he had 4000 of his best troops killed, and was obliged to shut himself up in the city of Chalcedon, with no hope of any other relief than what his colleague should think fit to give him. All the officers of his army, enraged at Cotta's rash and presumptuous conduct, endeavoured to persuade Lucul lus to enter Pontus, which Mithridates had left withou troops, and where he might assure himself of finding the people inclined to revolt. He answered, generously, that he would always esteem it more glorious to preserve a Roman citizer than to possess himself of the whole dominions of an enemy

and, without resentment against his colleague, he marched to assist him with all the success he could have hoped. This was the first action by which he distinguished himself, and which ought to do him more honour than the most splendid victories.

Mithridates, encouraged by the double advantage he had gained, undertook the siege of Cyzicum, a city of Propontis, which strenuously supported the Roman party in this war. In making himself master of this place, he would have opened himself a passage from Bithyma into Asia Minor, which would have been very advantageous to him, by giving him an opportunity of carrying the war thither with all possible ease and security. It was for this reason he desired to take it. In order to succeed, he invested it by land with 300,000 men, divided into ten camps, and by sea with 400 ships. Lucullus soon followed him thither, and began by seizing a post upon an eminence, of the highest importance to him, because it facilitated his receiving convoys, and gave him the means of cutting off the enemy's provisions. He had only 30,000 foot and 2,500 horse. The superiority of the enemy in number far from dismaying encouraged him, for he was convinced that so innumerable a multitude would soon be in want of provisions. Hence, in haranguing his troops, he promised them in a few days a victory that would not cost them a single drop of blood. It was in that he placed his glory; for the lives of the soldiers were dear to him.

The siege was long, and carried on with extreme vigour. Mithridates battered the place on all sides with innumerable machines. The defence was no less vigorous. The besieged did prodigies of valour, and employed all means that the most industrious capacity could invent, to repulse the enemy's attacks, either by burning their machines, or rendering them useless by a thousand different obstacles which they opposed to them. What inspired them with so much courage was their exceeding confidence in Lucullus, who had let them know, that, if they continued to defend themselves with the same valour, they might assure themselves that the

place would not be taken.

Lucullus was indeed so well posted, that, without coming to a general action, which he always carefully avoided, he made Mithridates's army suffer infinitely, by intercepting his convoys, charging his foraging parties with advantage, and beating the detachments he sent out from time to time. In a word, he knew so well how to improve all occasions that offered, he weakened the army of the besiegers so much, and used such address in cutting off their provisions, having

a A.M. 3931. Ant. J. C. 73. Plut. in Lucul, p. 497-499. Appies. p. 219-233.

shut up all avenues by which they might be supplied, that he reduced them to extreme famine. The soldiers could find no other food but the herbage, and some went so far as to support themselves upon human flesh. Mithridates b, who passed for the most artful captain of his times, in despair that a general, who could not yet have had much experience, should so often have deceived him by false marches and feigned movements, and had defeated him without drawing his sword, was at length obliged to raise the siege shamefully, after having spent almost two years before the place. He fled by sea, and his lieutenants retired with his army by land to Nicomedia. Lucullus pursued them, and, having come up with them near the Granicus, he killed 20,000 of them upon the spot, and took an infinite number of prisoners. is said, that in this war there perished almost 300,000 men, either soldiers and servants, or other followers of the army.

After this new success, Lucullus returned to Cyzicum, entered the city, and, after having enjoyed for some days the pleasure of having preserved it, and the honours which he derived from that success, he made a rapid march along the coasts of the Hellespont, to collect ships and form a fleet.

Mithridates, after having raised the siege of Cyzicum, repaired to Nicomedia, from whence he passed by sea into Pontus. He left part of his fleet, and 10,000 men of his best troops, in the Hellespont, under three of his most able generals. Lucullus, with the Roman fleet, beat them twice; the first time at Tenedos and the other at Lemnos, when the enemy thought of nothing less than making sail for Italy, and of alarming and plundering the coasts of Rome itself. He killed almost all their men in these two engagements; and in the last took their three generals, one of whom was M. Marius, the Roman senator, whom Sertorius had sent from Spain to the aid of Mithridates. Lucullus ordered him to be put to death, because it was not consistent with the Roman dignity that a senator of Rome should be led in triumph. One of the two others poisoned himself, and the third was reserved for the triumph. After having cleared the coasts by these two victories, Lucullus turned his arms towards the continent; reduced Bithynia first, then Paphla-

a A. M. 3932. Ant, J. C. 72.

c. Ab codem imperatore classem magnam et ornatam, que ducibus Sertoriamis ad Italiam ttudio inflammato raperetur, superatam esse atque depressam. Cie, pro lege Manil, n. 21.

Quid'illan purnam navalem ad Tenedum, cum tanto concursu, acerimis ducibus, hostum classis Italiam spe atque aminis inilata peteret, mediocri certamine et parva dimicatione commissam arbitraris? Cic, pro Murana, n. 33.

gonia; marched afterwards into Pontus, and carried the

war into the heart of Mithridates's dominions. He suffered at first so greatly from a want of provisions in this expedition, that he was obliged to make 30,000 Galatians follow the army, each with a quantity of wheat upon his shoulders. But, upon his advancing into the country, and subjecting the cities and provinces, he found such abundance of all things, that an ox sold for only one drachma, and a

slave for no more than four.

Mithridates had suffered almost as much by the tempest, in his passage on the Euxine sea, as in the campaign wherein he had been treated so roughly. He lost in it almost all the remainder of his fleet and the troops he had brought thither for the defence of his ancient dominions. When Lucullus arrived, he was making new levies with the utmost expedition, to defend himself against that invasion which he had foreseen.

Lucullus, upon arriving in Pontus, without loss of time, besieged Amisus and Eupatoria, two of the principal cities

in the country, very near each other.

The latter, which had been very lately built, was called Eupatoria, from the surname of Eupator, given to Mithridates; this place was his usual residence, and he had designed to make it the capital of his dominions. Not contented with these two sieges at once, Lucullus sent a detachment of his army to form that of Themiscyra, upon the river Thermodon, which place was not less considerable than the two

others. The officers of Lucullus's army complained, that their general amused himself too long in sieges which were not worth his trouble, and that in the mean time he gave Mithridates opportunity to augment his army and gather strength. To which he answered in his justification: "That is directly "what I want: I act designedly thus that our enemy may " take new courage, and assemble so numerous an army as " may embolden him to expect us in the field, and fly no "longer before us. Do you not observe, that he has behind "him immense wildernesses and infinite deserts, in which it " will be impossible for us either to pursue or come up with "him? Armenia is but a few days march from these deserts. "There Tigranes keeps his court, that king of kings, whose " power is so great that he subdues the Parthians, transports " whole cities of Greeks into the heart of Media, has made "himself master of Syria and Palestine, exterminated the " kings descended from Seleucus, and carried their wives and "daughters into captivity. This powerful prince is the ally "and son-in-law of Mithridates. Do you think, when he

Ten pence.

"has him in his palace as a suppliant, that he will abandon "him, and not make war against us? Hence, in hastening to "drive away Mithridates, we shall be in great danger of "drawing Tigranes upon our hands, who has long sought " pretexts for declaring against us, and who can never find " one more specious, legitimate, and honourable, than that of " assisting his father-in-law, and a king reduced to the last "extremity. Why therefore should we serve Mithridates "against ourselves, or show him to whom he should have " recourse for the means of supporting the war with us, by 46 pushing him, against his will, and at a time perhaps when "he looks upon such a step as unworthy his valour and " greatness into the arms and protection of Tigranes? Is it " not infinitely better, by giving him time to take courage, " and strengthen himself with his own forces, to have only " upon our hands the troops of Colchis, the Tibarenians, and "Cappadocians, whom we have so often defeated, than to " expose ourselves to have the additional force of the Ar-" menians and Medes to contend with?"

Whilst the Romans attacked the three places we have mentioned, Mithridates, who had already formed a new army, took the field very early in the spring. Lucullus left the command of the sieges of Amisus and Eupatoria to Murena, the son of him whom we have spoken of before, whom Cicero represents in a very favourable light. • "He went " into Asia, a province abounding with riches and pleasures, "where he left behind him no traces either of avarice or lux-"ury. He behaved in such a manner in this important war, "that he did many great actions without the general, the "general none without him." Lucullus marched against Mithridates, who lay encamped in the plains of Cabirz. The latter had the advantage in two actions, but was entirely defeated in the third, and obliged to fly without either servant or equerry to attend him, or a single horse of his stable. It was not till very late that one of his ennuchs, seeing him on foot in the midst of the flying crowd, got from his horse and gave it him. The Romans were so near him, that they almost had him in their hands, and it was owing entirely to themselves that they did not take him. The avarice alone of the soldiers lost them a prey which they had pursued so long, through so many toils, dangers, and battles, and deprived Lucullus of the sole reward of all his victories. Mithridates, says. Cicero, artfully imitated the manner in which

a A M. 3033. Ant. J. C. 71.
b Asiam is an refertam et candem delicatam, sie obiit, ut in ca neque avantia, neque luvurae vestigium reliquerit. Maximo in bello sie est vessitus, at his multas res et magnas sine imperatore gesserit, nullam sine hut imperator. Giapre Murzoa, n. 2.

c Ex suo regno sie Mitheidates profugit, ut ex codem Ponto Medea ilia quettdam profugisse dicitur; quam prodicant, in faga, fratris sui membra in ils locis;

Medea, in the same kingdom of Pontus, formerly escaped the pursuit of her father. That princess is said to have cut in pieces the body of Absyrtus, her brother, and to have scattered his limbs in the places through which her father pursued her, in order that his care in taking up those dispersed members, and the grief so sad a spectacle would give him, might stop the rapidity of his pursuit. Mithridates, in like manner, as he fled, left upon the way a great quantity of gold, silver, and precious effects, which had either descended to him from his ancestors or had been amassed by himself in preceding wars; and, whilst the soldiers employed themselves in gathering those treasures, the king escaped their hands. So that the father of Medea was stopped in his pursuit by sorrow, but the Romans by joy.

After this defeat of the enemy, Lucullus took the city of Cabirze, with several other places and castles, in which he found great riches. He found also the prisons full of Greeks, and princes nearly related to the king, who were confined in them. As those unhappy persons had long given themselves over for dead, the liberty they received from Lucullus seemed less a deliverance than new life to them. In one of these castles, a sister of the king's, named Nyssa, was also taken, which was to her a great instance of good fortune. For the other sisters of that prince, with his wives, who had been sent farther from the danger, and who believed themselves in safety and repose, all died miserably, Mithridates on his flight having sent them orders to die by Bacchidas the eunuch.

Among the other sisters of the king were Roxana and Statira, both unmarried, and about 40 years of age, with two of his wives, Berenice and Monima, both of Ionia, All Greece spoke much of the latter, whom they admired more for her wisdom than beauty, though exquisite. The king, having fallen desperately in love with her, had forgotten nothing that might incline her to favour his passion: he sent her at once 15,000 pieces of gold. She was always averse to him, and refused his presents, till he gave her the quality of wife and queen, and sent her the royal tiara, or diadem, an essential ceremony in the marriage of the kings of those nations. Nor did she then comply without extreme regret, and in compliance with the wishes of her family, who were dazzled with the splendour of a crown and the power of Mithridates, who was at that time victorious, and at the

qui se parens persequenetur, diesipavisse, ut corum collectio disperus, monorque patrius, coleritatum persequendi rotardaret. Sie Mithridates (ugiens maximar vius suni stone argenda, pulcherrimarumque rerum omnium, quas et a majoribus acceperat, et ipse bello superiore ex tota Asia direptas in suna regnum tangenust in Ponto, omness reliquit. Hac dum mostri culligunt amnia diligentius, res ipse e manibus efficiel. Ita illum in persequendi studio merer, hos luttin retardavis, Cie. de leg. Manil. n. 28.

height of his glory. From the time of her marriage to the instant of which we are now speaking, that unfortunate princess had passed her life in continual sadness and affliction, lamenting her fatal beauty, which instead of a husband had given her a master, and, instead of procuring her an honourable abode and the endearments of conjugal society, had confined her in a close prison, under a guard of Barbarians; where, far removed from the delightful regions of Greece, she had only enjoyed a dream of the happiness with which she had been flattered, and had really lost that solid and essential good she possessed in her own beloved country.

When Bacchidas arrived, and had signified to the princesses the order of Mithridates, which favoured them no farther than to leave them at liberty to choose the kind of death they should think most gentle and immediate, Monima taking the diadem from her head, tied it round her neck, and hung herself up by it. But that wreath not being strong enough, and breaking, she cried out, "Ah, fatal trifle, you "might at least do me this mournful office!" Then throwing it away with indignation, she presented her throat to

Bacchidas.

As for Berenice, she took a cup of poison, and as she was going to drink it, her mother, who was present, desired to share it with her. They accordingly drank both together. The half of that poison sufficed to carry off the mother, worn out and feeble with age, but was not enough to surmount the strength and youth of Berenice. That princess struggled long with death in the most violent agonies, till Bacchidas, tired with waiting the effects of the poison, ordered her to be strangled.

Of the two sisters, Roxana is said to have swallowed poison, venting a thousand reproaches and imprecations against Mithridates. Statira, on the contrary, was pleased with her brother, and thanked him, that being in so great danger for his own person, he had not forgotten them, and had taken care to supply them with the means of dying free, and of withdrawing from the indignities their enemies might else

have made them suffer.

Their deaths extremely afflicted Lucullus, who was of a gentle and humane disposition. He continued his march in pursuit of Mithridates; but, having received advice that he was four days journey before him, and had taken the road to Armenia, to retire to his son-in-law Tigranes, he returned directly; and, after having subjected some countries and taken some cities in the neighbourhood, he sent Appius Clodius to Tigranes, to demand Mithridates of him; and in the mean time returned against Amisus, which place was not

yet taken. "Callimachus, who commanded in it, and was the most able engineer of his times, had alone prolonged the When he saw that he could hold out no longer, he set fire to the city, and escaped in a ship that waited for him. Lucullus did his utmost to extinguish the flames, but in vain; and, to increase his concern, saw himself obliged to abandon the city to be plundered by the soldiers, from whom the place had as much to fear as from the flames themselves. His troops were insatiable for booty, and he not capable of restraining them. A shower of rain, which then happened to fall, preserved a great number of buildings, and Lucullus, before his departure, caused those which had been burnt to be rebuilt. This city was an ancient colony of the Athenians. Such of the Athenians, during Aristion's being master of Athens, as desired to fly from his tyranny, had retired thither, and enjoyed there the same rights and privileges with the natives.

Lucullus, when he left Amisus, directed his march towards the cities of Asia, which the avarice and cruelty of the usurers and tax-gatherers held under the most dreadful oppression: insomuch that those poor people were obliged to sell their children of both sexes, and even set up to auction the paintings and statues consecrated to the gods. And, when these would not suffice to pay the duties, taxes, and interest of their arrears, they were given up without mercy to their creditors, and often exposed to such barbarous tortures, that slavery, in comparison with their miseries, seemed a kind of

redress and tranquillity to them.

These immense debts of the province arose from the fine of 20,000 b talents which Sylla had imposed on it. They had already paid the sum twice over: but those insatiable usurers, by heaping interest upon interest, had run it up to 120,000 talents; so that they still owed triple the sums they had already paid.

Tacitus dhad reason to say, that usury was one of the most ancient evils of the Roman commonwealth, and the most frequent cause of sedition; but, at the time we now speak of, it was carried to an excess not easy to be credited.

The interest of money amongst the Romans was paid every month, and was one per cent. hence it was called usura eentesima, or unciarium fanus; because, in reckoning the 12 months, 12 per cent. was paid: Uncia is the 12th part of a whole.

The flaw of the 12 tables prohibited the raising interest

a A. M. 3934. Ant. J. C. 70.

<sup>b About 3,000,000 sterling.
c About 18,000,000 sterling.
d Sane vetus urbi fonchre malum, et seditionum discontinuamque cereberrima anna. Tacit. Annal. 1. vi. c. 16. c Tacit. Annal. 1. vi. c. 18, kėv. 1. vii. n. 16, f Nequis uncianie femore amplius exercets.</sup>

to above 12 per cent. This law was revived by the two tribunes of the people, in the 396th year of Rome.

e Ten years after, interest was reduced to half that sum,

in the 406th year of Rome, semiunciarium fænur.

b At length, in the 411th year of Rome, all interest was

prohibited by decree: Ne fenerari liceret,

All these decrees were ineffectual. Avarice was always too strong for the laws: and, whatever regulations were made to suppress it, either in the time of the republic or under the emperors, it always found means to clude them. Nor has it paid more regard to the laws of the Church, which have never entered into any composition on this point, and severely condemn all usury, even the most moderate; because, God having forbidden any, she never believed she had a right to permit it in the least. It is remarkable, that usury has always occasioned the ruin of the states where it has been tolerated: and it was this disorder which contributed very much to subvert the constitution of the Roman commonwealth, and gave birth to the greatest calamities in all the provinces of that empire.

Luculius, at this time, applied himself in procuring for the provinces of Asia some relaxation: which he could only effect by putting a stop to the injustice and cruelty of the usurers and tax-gatherers. The latter, finding themselves deprived by Lucullus of the immense gain they made, raised a great outcry, as if they had been excessively injured, and by the force of money animated many orators against him; particularly confiding in having most of those who governed the republic in their debt, which gave them a very extensive and almost unbounded influence. But Lucullus despised their clamours with a constancy the more admirable from its being

very uncommon.

SECT. III.

Lucullus declares war with Tigranes. The latter loses two battles.

d Tigranes, to whom Luculius had sent an ambassador, though of no great power in the beginning of his reign, had enlarged it so much by a series of successes, of which there are few examples, that he was commonly surnamed king of kings. After having overthrown and almost ruined the family of the kings, successors of the great Seleucus; after having very often humbled the pride of the Parthians, transported whole cities of Greeks into Media, conquered all Syria and Palestine, and

tes rursum oriebantur. Facit. Ibid
d A. M. 3934. Au. J. C. 70. Plut. in Lucul. p. 504, 512. Mamn. d. glyiii. -lvii. Appian in Mithrid. p. 838-232.

[&]amp; Liv. l. vii n. 27 6 Ibid. n. 42. c Multis plebiscitis obviam itum fraudibus: que totics represen miras per Artes rursum oriebantur.

given laws to the Arabians, called Scenites; he reigned with an authority respected by all the princes of Asia. ple paid him honours, after the manner of the East, even to adoration. His pride was inflamed and supported by the immense riches he possessed, by the excessive and continual praises of his flatterers, and by a prosperity that had never known any interruption.

Appius Clodius was introduced to an audience of this prince, who appeared with all the splendour he could display, in order to give the ambassador a higher idea of the royal dignity; who, on his side, uniting the haughtiness of his natural disposition with that which particularly characterised his republic, perfectly supported the dignity of a

Roman ambassader.

After having explained, in a few words, the subjects of complaint which the Romans had against Mithridates, and that prince's breach of faith in breaking the peace, without so much as attempting to give any reason or colour for it, he told Tigranes, that he came to demand his being delivered up to him, as due by every sort of title to Luculius's triumph; that he did not believe, as a friend to the Romans, which he had been till then, that he would make any difficulty in giving up Mithridates; and that, in case of his refusal, he was

instructed to declare war against him.

That prince, who had never been contradicted, and who knew no other law nor rule than his own will and pleasure, was extremely offended at this Roman freedom. But he was much more so with Lucullus's letter, when it was delivered to him. The title of king only, which it gave him, did not satify him. He had assumed that of king of kings, of which he was very fond, and had carried his pride in that respect so far as to cause himself to be served by crowned heads. He never appeared in public without having four kings attending him; two on foot on each side of his horse, when he went abroad: at table, in his chamber, in short, every where, he had always some of them to do the lowest offices for him; but especially when he gave audience to ambassadors. For, at that time, to give strangers a greater idea of his glory and power, he made them all stand in two ranks, one on each side of his throne, where they appeared in the habit and posture of common slaves. A pride so full of absurdity offends all the world. One more refined shocks less, though much the same at bottom.

It is not surprising that a prince of this character should bear the manner in which Clodius spoke to him with impatience. It was the first free and sincere speech he had heard during the 25 years he had governed his subjects, or rather tyrannized over them with excessive insolence. He answered, that Mithridates was the father of Cleopatra, his wife; that the union between them was of too strict a nature to admit his delivering him up for the triumph of Lucullus; and that, if the Romans were unjust enough to make war against him, he knew how to defend himself, and to make them repent it. To express his resentment by his answer, he directed it only to Lucullus, without adding the usual title of Imperator, or any other commonly given to the Roman generals.

Lucullus, when Clodius reported the result of his commission, and that war had been declared against Tigranes, returned with the utmost diligence into Pontus to begin it. The enterprise seemed rash, and the terrible power of the king astonished all those who relied less upon the valour of the troops and the conduct of the general than upon a multitude of soldiers. After having made himself master of Sinope, he gave that place its liberty, as he did also to Amisus, and made them both free and independent cities. Cotta did not treat Heraclæa, which he took after a long siege by treachery, in the same manner. He enriched himself out of its spoils, treated the inhabitants with excessive cruelty, and burnt almost the whole city. On his return to Rome, he was at first well received by the senate, and honoured with the surname of Ponticus, upon account of taking that place. But, soon after, when the Heracleans had laid their complaints before the senate, and represented, in a manner capable of moving the hardest hearts, the miseries Cotta's avarice and cruelty had made them suffer, the senate contented themselves with depriving him of the tatus clavus, which was the robe worn by the senators, a punishment in no wise proportioned to the flagrant excesses proved upon him.

Lucullus left Sornatius, one of his generals, in Pontus, with \$600 men, and marched with the rest, which amounted only to 12,000 foot and 3000 horse, through Cappadocia to the Euphrates. He passed that river in the midst of winter, and afterwards the Tigris, and came before Tigranocerta, which was at some small distance, to attack Tigranes in his capital, where he had lately arrived from Syria. Nobody dared speak to that prince of Lucullus and his march, after his cruel treatment of the person who brought him the first news of it, whom he put to death in reward for so important a service. He listened to nothing but the discourses of flatterers, who told him Lucullus must be a great captain if he only dared wait for him at Ephesus, and did not betake himself to flight and abandon Asia, when he saw the many thousands of which his army was composed. So true it is, says

Plutarch, that, as all constitutions are not capable of bearing much wine, all minds are not strong enough to bear great

prosperity without loss of reason and infatuation.

Tigranes, at first, had not deigned so much as to see or speak to Mithridates, though his father-in-law, but treated him with the utmost contempt and arrogance, kept him at a distance, and placed a guard over him as a prisoner of state, in marshy unwholesome places. ^a But after Clodius's embassy, he had ordered him to be brought to court with all possible honours and marks of respect. In a private conversation, which they had together without witnesses, they cured themselves of their mutual suspicions, to the great misfortune of their friends, upon whom they cast all the blame.

In the number of those unfortunate persons was Metrodorus, of the city of Scepsis, a man of extraordinary merit, who had so much influence with Mithridates, that he was called the king's father. That prince had sent him on an embassy to Tigranes, to desire aid against the Romans. When he had explained the occasion of his journey, Tigranes asked him: "And for you, Metrodorus, what would you add" vise me to do, with respect to your master's demands?" Upon which Metrodorus replied, out of an excess of ill-timed sincerity; "As an ambassador, I advise you to do what "Mithridates demands of you; but as your counsel not to do "it." This was a criminal prevarication, and a kind of treason. It cost him his life, when Mithridates had been apprized of it by Tigranes.

Lucullus was continually advancing against that prince, and was already in a manner at the gates of his palace, without his either knowing or believing any thing of the matter, so much was he blinded by his presumption. Mithrobarzanes, one of his favourites, ventured to carry him that news. The reward he had for it was to be charged with a commission, to goimmediately with some troops and bring Lucullus prisoner; as if the question had been only to arrest one of the king's subjects. The favourite, with the greatest part of the troops given him, lost their lives, in endeavouring to

execute that dangerous commission.

This ill success opened the eyes of Tigranes, and made him recover from his infatuation. Mithridates had been sent back into Pontus, with 10,000 horse, to raise troops there, and to return and join Tigranes, in case Lucullus entered Armenia. For himself, he had chosen to continue at Tigranocerta, in order to give the necessary orders for raising troops throughout his whole dominions. After this check he began to be afraid of Lucullus, quitted Tigranocerta, re-

tired to mount Taurus, and gave orders to all his troops to

repair thither to him.

Lucullus marched directly to Tigranocerta, took up his quarters around the place, and formed the siege of it. This city was full of all sorts of riches; the inhabitants of all orders and conditions having emulated each other in contributing to its establishment and magnificence, in order to make their court to the king: for this reason Lucullus pressed the siege with the utmost vigour; believing that Tigranes would never suffer it to be taken, and that he would come on in a transport of fury to offer him battle, and oblige him to raise the siege. And he was not mistaken in his conjecture. Mithridates sent every day couriers to Tigranes, and wrote him letters, in the strongest terms, to advise him not to hazard a battle, and to make use of his cavalry alone in cutting off Lucullus's provisions. Taxiles himself was sent by him with the same instructions; who, staying with him in his camp, earnestly intreated him, every day, not to attack the Roman armies, as they were excellently disciplined, veteran soldiers. and almost invincible.

At first he hearkened to this advice with patience enough. But, when all his troops, consisting of a great number of different nations, were assembled, not only the king's feasts but his councils resounded with nothing but vain bravadoes, full of insolence, pride and barbarian menaces. Taxiles was in danger of being killed, for having ventured to oppose the advice of those who were for a battle: and Mithridatea himself was openly accused of opposing it only out of envy, to deprive his son-in-law of the glory of so great a success.

In this conceit Tigranes determined to wait no longer, lest Mithridates should arrive, and share with him in the honour of the victory. He therefore marched with all his forces, telling his friends, that he was only sorry on one account, and that was, his having to engage with Lucullus alone, and not with all the Roman generals together. He measured his hopes of success by the number of his troops. He had 20,000 archers or slingers, 55,000 horse, 17,000 of which were heavy-armed cavalry, 150,000 foot, divided into companies and battalions, besides pioneers to clear the roads, build bridges, cleanse and turn the course of rivers; with other labourers of the same discription necessary in armies, to the number of 35,000, who, being drawn up in battle behind the combatants, made the army appéar still more numerous, and augmented its force and confidence.

When he had passed mount Taurus, and all his troops appeared together in the plains, the sight alone of his army was sufficient to strike terror into the most daring enemy. Lucullus, always intrepid, divided his troops. He left Mu-

rena with 6000 foot before the place, and with all the rest of his infantry, consisting of 24 cohorts, which together did not amount to more than 10 or 12,000 men, all his horse, and about 1000 archers or slingers, marched against Tigranes, and encamped in the plain, with a large river in his front.

This handful of men made Tigranes laugh, and supplied his flatterers with matter for pleasantry. Some openly jested upon them: others, by way of diversion, drew lots for their spoils; and, of Tigranes's generals and the kings in his army, there was not one who did not intreat him to give the charge of that affair to him alone, and content himself with being only a spectator of the action. Tigranes himself, to appear agreeable and a delicate rallier, used an expression, which has been much admired; "If they come as ambassa-" dors, they are a great many; but if as enemies, very few."

Thus the first day passed in jesting and raillery.

The next morning, at sun-rise, Lucullus made his army march out of their entrenchments. That of the Barbarians was on the other side of the river towards the East, and the river ran in such a manner, that it turned off short to the left towards the West, where it was easily fordable. Lucullus, in leading his army to this ford, inclined also to the left, towards the lower part of the river, hastening his march, Tigranes, who saw him, believed he fled; and, calling for Taxiles, told him, with a contemptuous laugh:—"Do you see "those invincible Roman legions? You see they can run "away. "Taxiles replied, "I heartily wish your majesty's "good fortune may this day work a mirace in your favour; "but the arms and march of those legions do not indicate people running away."

Taxiles was still speaking, when he saw the eagle of the first legion move on a sudden to the right about, by the command of Lucullus, followed by all the cohorts, in order to pass the river. Tigranes, recovering then with difficulty, like one that had been long drunk, cried out two or three times. "How! Are those people coming to us?" They came on so fast, that his numerous troops did not post themselves, nor draw up in battle without abundance of disorder and confusion. Tigranes placed himself in the centre, gave the left wing to the king of the Adiabenians, and the right to the king of the Medes. The greatest part of the heavy-

armed horse covered the front of the right wing.

As Lucullus was preparing to pass the river, some of his general officers advised him not to engage upon that day, because it was one of those unfortunate days which the Romans called black days. For it was the same upon which the army of a Cepio had been defeated in the battle with the

a The Greek text says, the a my of Scipie, which Montieur de Thou justly corrected in the margin of his Mutarch, the army of Cepte.

Cimbri. Lucullus made them this answer, which afterwards became so famous: "And for my part, I will make this a "happy day for the Romans."

It was the sixth day of October, (the day before the nones

of October).

After having made that reply, and exorted them not to be discouraged, he passed the river, and marched foremost against the enemy. He was armed with a steel cuirass, made in the form of scales, which glittered surprisingly, under which was his coat of arms, bordered all round with a fringe. He brandished his naked sword in his hand, to intimate to his troops, that it was necessary to join an enemy immediately, who were accustomed to fight only at a distance with their arrows; and to deprive them, by the swiftness and impetuosity of the attack, of the space required for the use of them.

Perceiving that the heavy-armed cavalry, upon whom the enemy very much relied, were drawn up at the foot of a little hill, the summit of which was flat and level, and the declivity of not above 500 paces, neither much broken nor very difficult, he saw at first glance what use he had to make of it. He commanded his Thracian and Galatian horse to charge that body of the enemy's cavalry in flank, with orders only to turn aside their lances with their swords. For the principal, or rather whele, force of those heavy-armed horse consisted in their lances; and, when they had not room to use these, they could do nothing either against the enemy or for themselves; their arms being so heavy, stiff, and cumbersome, that they could not turn themselves, and were

almost immoveable.

Whilst his cavalry marched to execute his orders, he took two cohorts of foot, and went to gain the eminence. The infantry followed courageously, excited by the example of their general, whom they saw marching foremost on foot, and ascending the hill. When he was at the top, he showed himself from the highest part of it; and, seeing from thence the whole order of the enemy's battle, he cried out: " The " the victory is ours, fellow-soldiers, the victory is ours!" At the same time, with his two cohorts, he advanced against that heavy-armed cavalry, and ordered his men not to make use of their pikes, but join the troopers sword in hand, and strike upon their legs and thighs, which were the only unarmed parts about them. But his soldiers had not so much trouble with them. That cavalry did not stay their coming on, but shamefully took to flight; and, howling as they fled, fell with their heavy unwieldy horses upon the ranks of their foot, without joining battle at all, or so much as making a single thrust with their lances. The slaughter did not begin

until they began to fly, or rather, to endeavour to fly; for they could not do so, being prevented by their own battalions, whose ranks were so close and deep that they could not break their way through them. Tigranes, that king, so lofty and brave in words, had taken to flight from the beginning with a few followers; and, seeing his son the companion of his fortune, he took off his diadem, weeping; and, giving it him, exhorted him to save himself as well as he could by another route. That young prince was afraid to put the diadem upon his head, which would have been a dangerous ornament at such a time, and gave it into the hands of one of the most faithful of his servants, who was taken a moment after and carried to Lucullus.

It is said, that in this defeat more than 100,000 of the enemy's foot perished, and that very few of their horse escaped: on the side of the Romans, only five were killed and 100 wounded. They had never engaged in a pitched battle so great a number of enemies with so few troops; for the victors did not amount to the 20th part of the vanquished. The greatest and most able Roman generals, who had seen most wars and battles, gave Lucullus particular praises for having defeated two of the greatest and most powerful kings in the world, by two entirely different methods, delay and expedition. For, by protraction and spinning out the war, he exhausted Mithridates when he was strongest and most formidable; and ruined Tigranes by making haste, and not giving him time to look about him. It has been remarked, that few captains have known how, like him, to make slow-

ness active, and haste sure.

It was this latter conduct that prevented Mithridates from being present in the battle. He imagined Lucullus would use the same precaution and protraction against Tigranes as he had done against himself, so that he marched but slowly and by small days journeys to join Tigranes; but, having met some Armenians upon the way, who fled with the utmost terror and consternation, he suspected what had happened; and, afterwards, meeting a much greater number of fugitives, naked and wounded, was fully informed of the defeat, and went in search of Tigranes. He found him, at length, abandoned by all the world, and in a very deplorable condition. Far from returning his ungenerous treatment, and insulting him in his misfortunes, as Tigranes had done to him, he quitted his horse, lamented their common disgrace, gave him the guard which attended and the officers who served him, consoled, encouraged, him, and revived his hopes; so that Mithridaes, upon this occasion, showed himself not en-tirely void of simanity. Both together engaged in raising new troops or all sides.

In the mean time a furious sedition arose in Tigranocerta; the Greeks having mutinied against the Barbarians, and being determined, at all events, to deliver the city to Luculus. That sedition was at the highest when he arrived there. He took advantage of the occasion, ordered the assault to be given, took the city, and, after having seized all the king's treasures, abandoned it to be plundered by the soldiers; who, besides other riches, found in it 8,000 talents of coined silver (about 1,200,000/. sterling.) Besides this plunder, he gave each soldier 800 drachmas a, which, with all the booty they had taken, was not sufficient to satisfy their inordinate avidity.

As this city had been peopled by colonies, which had been carried away by force from Cappadocia, Cilicia, and other places, Lucullus permitted them all to return into their native countries. They received that permission with extreme joy, and quitted it in so great numbers, that, from one of the greatest cities in the world, Tigranocerta became

in an instant almost a desert.

c If Lucullus had pursued Tigranes after his victory, without giving him time to raise new troops, he would either have taken or driven him out of the country, and the war would have been at an end. His having failed to do so was very ill taken both in the army and at Rome, and he was accused, not of negligence, but of having intended by such conduct to make himself necessary, and to retain the command longer in his own hands. This was one of the reasons that prejudiced the generality against him, and induced them to think of giving him a successor, as we shall see in the sequel.

After the great victory he had gained over Tigranes, several nations came to make their submissions to him. He received also an embassy from the king of the Parthians, who demanded the amity and alliance of the Romans. cullus received this proposal favourably, and sent also ambassadors to him, who, being arrived at the Parthian court, discovered that the king, uncertain which side to take, wavered between the Romans and Tigranes, and had secretly demanded Mesopotamia of the latter, as the price of the aid he offered him. Lucullus, informed of this secret intrigue, resolved to leave Mithridates and Tigranes, and to turn his arms against the king of the Parthians; flattered with the grateful thought, that nothing could be more glorious for him than to have entirely reduced, in one expedition, the three most powerful princes under the sun. But the opposition this proposal met with from the props obliged

a About 26%.

6 Strab 1. xi. p. 333, et 1. 277. 839. c Dien. Ces. L Exxv. p. 1. him to renounce his enterprise against the Parthians, and to

confine himself to the pursuit of Tigranes.

During this delay, Mithridates and Tigranes had been indefatigable in raising new troops. They had sent to implore aid of the neighbouring nations, and especially of the Parthians, who were the nearest, and, at the same time, in the best condition to assist them in the present extremity, Mithridates wrote a letter to their king, which Sallust has preserved, and which is to be found amongst his fragments. I shall insert a part of it in this place.

LETTER OF MITHRIDATES TO ARSACES 4, RING OF THE PARTHIANS.

"ALL those b who in a state of prosperity are invited to "enter as confederates into a war, ought first to consider " whether peace be at their own option; and, next whether " what is demanded of them is consistent with justice, their "interest, safety, and glory. You might enjoy perpetual " peace and tranquillity, were not the enemy always intent "upon seizing occasions of war, and undeterred by any "crimes. In reducing the Romans, you cannot but acquire "the highest reputation. It may seem inconsistent in me to "propose to you either an alliance with Tigranes, or that "you, powerful as you are, should join a prince in my un-"fortunate condition. But I dare assert, that those two mo-"tives, your resentment against Tigranes upon account of " his late war with you, and the disadvantageous situation of " my affairs, if you judge rightly, far from opposing my de-"mand, ought to support it. For, as to Tigranes, as he "knows he has given you just cause of complaint, he will accept, without difficulty, whatever conditions you shall "think fit to impose upon him; and for me, I can say, that "fortune, by having deprived me of almost all I possessed, " has enabled me to give others good counsels, and, which is " much to be desired by persons in prosperity, I can, even " from my own misfortunes, supply you with examples, and " induce you to take better measures than I have done. For, "do not deceive yourself, it is with all nations, states, and

a Arsases was a common name to all the kings of Parthia.

⁵ Omnes, qui secundis rebus suis ad belli sociatatem oranter, considera re debent, liceature tum pacem agent a din quod queritur, atisse pissa, tutum, gloriosum, an indecorum, sit. Tibi perpetus pace fru liceret nisi hostes opportuni et scelestissimi. Egreçia fama, si Romanos oppresseris, futura est. Neque petem audeam societatam, et irusta mais mea cum tuis benis misetri sperem. Atqui ea que te morati posse videntur, ira in Tigranem recentis belli, at mea res parum prosperse, si vera estumare voles, maxime horabuntur. Ille equi obsociata, qualem tag, voles societatem sceipiet: mibi iortuna, multis rebus ereptia, usum dedit bengijuadendi, et quod florentibus optable est. ego non validasimus prebeo exemplitim, quo rectius tua componas. Nauque Romanis cum metionibus, populis, regibus cunetis, uma et ca vetus causa bellandi est, cupido profunda importi et divitiaruma.

"kingdoms of the earth, that the Romans are at war; and "two motives, as ancient as powerful, put their arms into " into their hands : the unbounded ambition of extending "their conquests, and the insatiable thirst of riches." Mithridates afterwards enumerates at large the princes and kings whom they had reduced one after another, and often by means of one another. He repeats also his first successes against the Romans, and his late misfortunes. He goes on to this effect: "Examine now a, I beg you, whether, when " we are finally ruined, you will be in a condition to resist the "Romans, or can believe, that they will confine their con-" quests to my country? I know you are powerful in men, "in arms, and treasure; it is for that reason we desire to " strengthen ourselves by your alliance, they too grow rich " by your spoils. For the rest, it is the intention of Tigranes " to avoid drawing the war into his own country, that we " shall go with all my troops, which are certainly well dis-"ciplined, to carry our arms far from home, and attack the "enemy in person in their own country. We cannot, there-" fore, either conquer or be conquered, without your being " in danger. Do you not know, that the Romans, when they " found themselves stopped by the ocean in the West, turned their arms this way? That, to look back to their founda-"tion and origin, whatever they have, they have from vio-"lence: home, wives, lands, and dominions. A vile herd " of every kind of vagabonds, without country, without fore-" fathers, they established themselves for the misfortune of the "human race. Neither divine nor human laws restrain them "from betraying and destroying their allies and friends, remote nations or neighbours, the weak or the powerful. "They reckon as enemies all that are not their slaves; and

a Nune, quæso, considera, nobis oppressis, utrum firmiorem te ad resistendum, an finem helli (tuturum putes? Scio equidem tibi magnis opes virorum, armorum, et auri esse : et ea re nobis ad societatem, ab ilins ad predam peteris. Casterum connilium est Tigrania, regno integro meis militibus belli prudentibus, procul ab domo, parvo labore, per nostra corpora bellum conficere: quando neque vinecer neque vineci sine periculo tuo possumus. An ignora Romanua, postquam ad accidentem pergentibus finem occanus fecit, arma hue convertisse? Neque quiequam a principio nisi raptum habere: domum conjugea, agroa, imperium? Convenas, olim sine patria, sine parentibus, peste conditos orbis terrarum: quibus non humana ulla ueque divina obstant; quin socios, amicoa, procul juxtaque sitos, inopes, potentesque trahaut, excidantque; omnique non serva et maxime regnas, hostilia ducant. Namque pauci libertatem, par magna justos dominos volunt. Nos suspecti sumus amull et in tempore vindices affuturi. To vero cui Seleucia maxima urb um, regnumque Perrudis incitis divitiis est, quid ab ilia, nisi dolum in præsen, et pastea bellum expectas? Romani in omnes arma habent, acerima in eos quibus spolis maxima sunt. Audendo et fallendo, et bella ev bellis serendo, magni fasti. Per hune morem extinguent omnasa, aut occident: quod difficile non est si tu Mesopotamia, nos Armenia, circungredinum expercitum, sine frumento, sine auxillis. Fortuna auteu mostris vitius adhue incolumis. Teque illa fama sequetur, auxilio profectum magnis regibus latrones gentium oppressisse. Quod ut facias moneo hortorque, musu gastibus permicie nostra unum imperium probare, quam societate victor feer.

"especially whatever bears the name of king. For, few na-" tions affect a free and independent government; the gene-" rality prefer just and equitable masters. They suspect " us, because we are said to emulate their power, and may " in time avenge their oppressions. But for you, who have "Seleucia, the greatest of cities, and Persia, the richest and "most powerful of kingdoms, what can you expect from "them but deceit at present and war hereafter? The Ro-"mans are at war with all nations; but, especially with "those from whom the richest spoils are to be expected. "They are become great by boldly enterprising, betraying, and by making one war bring forth another. By this " means, they will either destroy all others or be destroyed "themselves. It will not be difficult to ruin them, if you on "the side of Mesopotamia and we on that of Armenia sur-" round their army, which will be without provisions or aux-"iliaries. The prosperity of their arms has subsisted hi-" therto solely by our fault, who have not been so prudent as " to appreciate the views of this common enemy, and to ally "ourselves against him. It will be for your immortal glory " to have supported two great kings, and to have conquered "and destroyed those robbers of the world. This is what I " carnestly advise and exhort you to do: by warning you to "choose rather to share with us, by a salutary alliance, in "the conquest of the common enemy, than to suffer the Ro-

"man empire to extend itself universally by our ruin."

It does not appear that this letter had the effect upon Phraates which Mithridates might have hoped from it. So that the two kings contented themselves with their own

troops.

^aOne of the means made use of by Tigranes to assemble a new army was to recal Megadates from Syria, who had governed it 14 years in his name: to him he sent orders to join him with all the troops in that country. Syria ^b being thereby entirely ungarrisoned, Antiochus Asiaticus, son of Antiochus Eupator, to whom it of right appertained, as lawful heir of the house of Seleucus, took possession of some part of the country, and reigned there peaceably during four years.

c The army of Tigrames and Mithridates was at last formed. It consisted of 70,000 chosen men, whom Mithridates had trained well in the Roman discipline. It was about midsummer before it took the field. The two kings took particular care, in all the movements they made, to choose an advantageous ground for their camp, and to fortify it well, to prevent Lucullus's attacking them in it; nor could all the

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a Appian. in Syr. p. 112, 119, c A. M. 3936. Ant. J. C. 68. Plut. in Lucul. p. 613-615.

stratagems he used engage them to come to a battle. Their design was to reduce him gradually : to harass his troops, on their marches, in order to weaken them; to intercept his convoys, and oblige him to quit the country for want of provisions. Lucullus not being able, by all the arts he could use, to bring them into the open field, employed a new plan, which succeeded. Tigranes had left, at Artaxata, the capital of Armenia before the foundation of Tigranocerta, his wives and children; and there he had deposited almost all his treasures. Lucullus marched that way with all his troops, rightly foreseeing that Tigranes would not remain quiet, when he saw the danger to which his capital was exposed. prince accordingly decamped immediately, followed Lucul-ius to disconcert his design, and, by four great marches having got before him, posted himself behind the river Arsamia. which Lucullus was obliged to pass in his way to Artaxata, and resolved to dispute the passage with him. mans passed the river without being prevented by the presence or efforts of the enemy; a great battle ensued, in which the Romans again obtained a complete victory. There were three kings in the Armenian army, of whom Mithridates behaved the worst. For, not being able to look the Roman legions in the face, as soon as they charged, he was one of the first who fled; which threw the whole army into such a consternation, that it entirely lost courage; and this was the principal cause of the loss of the battle.

b Lucullus, after this victory, determined to continue his march to Artaxata, which was the certain means to put an end to the war. But, as that city was still several days journey from thence towards the north, and winter was approaching with its train of snows and storms, the soldiers, already fatigued by a sufficiently rough campaign, refused to follow him into that country, where the cold was too severe for them. He was obliged to lead them into a warmer

climate, by returning the way he came.

He therefore repassed mount Taurus, and entered Mesopotamia, where he took the city Nisibis, a place of considerable strength, and put his troops into winter-quarters.

It was there that the spirit of munity began to show itself epenly in the army of Lucullus. That general's severity, and the insolent liberty of the Roman soldiers, and still more the malignant practices of Clodius, had given occasion for this revolt. Clodius, so well known by the invectives of Ciecro his enemy, is hardly better treated by historians. They represent him as a man abandoned to all kind of vices, and

a Or Arania.

b Dion, Cas. I. xxxvii p. 3—7
c Noster exercitus, etsi urbem ex Tigranis regno ceperat, et prabiis usus esst
secundis, tunen nimia longunquitate lagorum, as desiderio anorum commonreto
tur. Cie pro leg. Man. u. 23.

infamous for his debaucheries, which he carried so far as to commit incest with his own sister, the wife of Lucullus; to these he added unbounded audacity, and uncommon cunning in the contrivance of seditions; in a word, he was one of those dangerous persons, born to disturb and ruin every thing. by the unhappy union in himself of the most wicked inclinations with the talents necessary for putting them in execu-He gave a proof of this upon the occasion of which we are now speaking. Discontented with Lucullus, he secretly spread reports against him, well calculated to render him odious. He affected to lament extremely the fatigues of the soldiers, and to enter into their interests. He told them every day that they were very unfortunate, in being obliged to serve so long under a severe and avaricious general, in a remote climate, without lands or rewards, whilst their fellow-soldiers, whose conquests were very moderate in comparison with theirs, had enriched themselves under Pompey. Discourses of this kind, attended with obliging and affable behaviour, which he knew how to assume occasionally without the appearance of affectation, made such an impression upon the soldiers, that it was no longer in the power of Lucullus to govern them.

Mithridates, in the mean time, had re-entered Pontus with 4000 of his own troops, and 4000 given him by Tigranes. Several inhabitants of the country joined him again, as well out of hatred to the Romans, who had treated them with great vigour, as the remains of affection for their king, reduced to the mournful condition in which they saw him from the most splendid fortune and exalted greatness. For, the misfortunes of princes naturally excite compassion, and there is generally a profound respect engraven in the hearts of the people for the name and person of kings. Mithridates, encouraged and strengthened by these new aids, and the troops which several neighbouring states and princes sent him, resumed courage, and saw himself, more than ever, in a condition to make head against the Romans. So that, not contented with being re-established in his dominions, which a moment before he did not so much as hope ever to see again, he had the boldness to attack the Roman troops, so often victorious, beat a body of them, commanded by Tabius, and, af-

b Inque tantum vietus efficere potuit, quantum incolumis nunquam est aussis opare. Nam eum se in regnum recepisset suum, non fuit co contentua, quod et preter spem acciderat, ut caut, postea quam pulsus erat, terram uaquam attingeret; sed ia exercitum validam claram atque victorent impetum foct. Cis, pre leg. Manil. n. 35.

a Mithridates et suam manum jam eonfirmarat, et corum qui se ex cjus regno collegerant, et magnis adventiuis multorum regum et nationum copsis juvabatur. Hoc jam fère se fieri solere acceptmes: ut regum afficte facile multorum opes allienant ad misericordiam, maximeque eorum qui aut reges sunt, aut vivant in regno; quod regale ils nomen magnum et sanctum esse videntur. Cie, pre leg. Manil n 24.

ter having put them to the rout, pressed Triarius and Sornatius, two other of Lucullus's lieutenants in that country, with

great vigour.

· Lucullus at length engaged his soldiers to quit their winter-quarters, and to go to their aid. But they arrived to late. Triarius had imprudently ventured a battle, in which Mithridates had defeated him, and killed him 7000 men; amongst whom were reckoned 150 centurions and 24 tribunes, which made this one of the greatest losses the Romans had sustained for a great while. The army would have been entirely defeated, but for a wound Mithridates had received, which exceedingly alarmed his troops, and gave the enemy time to escape. Lucullus, upon his arrival, found the dead bodies upon the field of battle, and did not give orders for their interment: which still more exasperated his soldiers against him. The spirit of revolt rose so high, that, without any regard for his character as general, they treated him no longer but with insolence and contempt; and, though he went from tent to tent, and almost from man to man, to conince them to march against Mithridates and Tigranes, he could never prevail upon them to quit the place where they were. They answered him, brutally, that as he had no thoughts but of enriching himself alone, out of the spoils of the enemy, he might march alone, and fight them if he thought

SECT. IV.

Mithridates recovers all his dominions. Pompey overthrows him in several battles.

Manius Acilius Glabrio and C. Piso had been elected consuls at Rome. The first had Bithynia and Pontus for his province, where Lucullus commanded. The senate, at the same time, disbanded Fimbria's legions, which were part of his army. All this news augmented the disobedience and in-

solence of the troops towards Lucullus.

c It is true, his rough, austere, and frequently haughty disposition gave some room for such usage. He cannot be denied the glory of having been one of the greatest captains of his age; and of having had almost all the qualities that form a complete general. But one was wanting which diminished the merit of all the rest; I mean the art of gaining the affections, and making himself beloved by the soldiers. He was difficult of access; rough in commanding; carried ex-

a A. M. 3937. Ant. J. C. 67.
b Que calquitas tauta fuit, ut cam ad aures L. Luculli, non ex prelio suntins, sed ex sermone rumor offerret. Cie. pro leg. Manil. n. 26.
c Dion. Cass. 1. xxv. p. 7.

actitude, in point of duty, to an excess that made it odious; was inexorable in punishing offences; and did not know how to conciliate good will by praises and rewards opportunely bestowed, an air of kindness and favour, and insinuating manners, still more efficacious than either gifts or praises. And what proves that the sedition of the troops was in a great measure his own fault, was their being very docile and obedient under Pompey.

In consequence of the letters which Lucullus had written to the senate, in which he acquainted them that Mithridates was entirely defeated, and utterly incapable of retrieving himself, commissioners had been nominated to regulate the affairs of Pontus, as of a kingdom totally reduced. They were much surprised to find, upon their arrival, that far from being master of Pontus, he was not so much as master of his army. and that his own soldiers treated him with the utmost con-

tempt.

The arrival of the consul Acilius Glabrio still added to their licentiousness. . He informed them, that Luculius had been accused at Rome of protracting the war for the sake. of continuing his command; that the senate had disbanded part of his troops, and forbade them paying him any further obedience. So that he soon found himself almost entirely abandoned by the soldiers: Mithridates, taking advantage of this disorder, had time to recover his whole kingdom, and to make great ravages in Cappadocia.

Whilst the affairs of the army were in this condition, great noise was made at Rome against Lucullus. b Pompey had just put an end to the war with the pirates, for which an extraordinary power had been granted to him. Upon this occasion, one of the tribunes of the people, named Manilius, proposed a decree to this effect; "That Pompey, taking upon him the command of all the troops and provinces which were under Lucullus, and adding to them Bithynia, where Acilius commanded, should be charged with the conduct of the war against the kings Mithridates and Tigranes, retaining under him all the naval forces, and continuing to command at sea with the same conditions and prerogatives as had been granted him in the war against the pirates; that is to say, that he should have absolute power on all the coasts of the Mediterranean, to thirty leagues distance from the sea." This was, in effect, subjecting the whole Roman empire to one man. For all the provinces

Cass. L xxxvj. p. 20,

a In ipso illo malo gravissimaque belli offensione, L. Lucullus qui tamen aliqua ex parte ile incommodis mederi fortsase potuisee, vestro jusu coactus, quod imperii duturmiati modum stauendum, veteri exemplo, putavistis, partem militum, qui jam stipendiis confectis erant, dimisit, partem Glabrioni tradidit. Cie. prof leg. Manil. n. 26.

6. A. M. 2938. Ant. J. C. 66. Plut. in Pemp. p. 634. App. p. 238. Biem.

which had not been granted him by the first decree, Phrygia, Lycaonia, Galatia, Cappadocia, Cilicia, the higher Colchis, and Armenia, were conferred upon him by this second, which included also all the armies and forces with which Luculius had defeated the two kings, Mithridates and Tigranes.

Consideration for Lucullus, who was deprived of the glory of his great exploits, and in the place of whom a general was appointed to succeed more to the honours of his triumph than the command of his armies, was not, however, what gave the nobility and senate most concern. They were well convinced that great wrong was done him, and that his services were not treated with the gratitude they deserved; but what gave them most pain, and what they could not support, was that high degree of power to which Pompey was raised, which they considered as a tyranny already formed. For this reason they exhorted each other in private, and mutually encouraged one another to oppose this decree, and not

abandon their expiring liberty.

Czsar and Cicero, who were very powerful at Rome, supported Manilius, or rather Pompey, with all their credit. It was upon this occasion, that the latter pronounced that fine oration before the people, entitled, "For the law of Mani-"lius." After having demonstrated, in the two first parts of his discourse, the necessity and importance of the war in question, he proves, in the third, that Pompey is the only person capable of terminating it successfully. For this purpose, he enumerates at length the qualities necessary to form a general of an army, and shows that Pompey possesses them all in a supreme degree. He insists principally upon his probity, humanity, innocence of manners, integrity, disinterestedness, love of the public good: "Virtues, by so much the "more necessary (says he) as the Roman name is become " infamous and hateful amongst foreign nations, and our allies, "in consequence of the debauches, avarice, and unheard-"of oppressions of the generals and magistrates we send amongst them. Instead of which, the wise, moderate, " and irreproachable conduct of Pompey will make him be " regarded, not as sent from Rome, but descended from hea-"ven, for the happiness of the nations. People begin to be-" lieve, that all which is related of the noble disinterested-"ness of those ancient Romans is real and true; and that it

a Dificile est dieta, Quirites, quanto in odio simus apud exteras nationes, propter corum, ques ad eas hoc anno cum imperio misimus, injurias ac libidines. Cic. pro leg. Man. s. 61.

b Itaque omnes quidem nunc in his locis Cn. Pompeium, sieut atiquem non ex hac urbe missum, sed de cœlo delapsum intuentur. Nunc denique incipiunt credere, fuises homanes Romanes hac quondam abstinentia, quod jain natiositem exteris interedibile ac isliso memoriz: proditum videbatur. Nunc imperii mestri splendor illie gentius fucet; nunc intelligunt, non suc causa majores suos runs, n hac temperantia magistratus habebamus, servire popule Remane, quama—aliis maluisse. Ibid. n. 41.

"was not without reason, under such magistrates, that nations chose rather to obey the Roman people than to command others."

Pompey was at that time the idol of the people, wherefore the fear of displeasing the multitude kept those grave senators silent, who had appeared so well inclined, and so full of courage. The decree was authorized by the suffrages of all the tribes, and Pompey, though absent, declared absolute master of almost all Sylla had usurped by arms, and by mak-

ing a cruel war upon his country.

a We must not imagine, says a very judicious historian, that either Czsar or Cicero, who took so much pains to have this law passed, acted from views of the public good. Czsar, full of ambition and great projects, endeavoured to make his court to the people, whose authority he knew was at that time much greater than the senate's: he thereby opened himself a way to the same power, and familiarized the Romans to extraordinary and unlimited commissions: in heaping upon the head of Pompey so many favours and glaring distinctions, he flattered himself that he should at length render him odichs to the people, who would soon take offence at them. So that, in lifting him up, he had no other design than to prepare a precipice for him. Cicero also had in view only his own greatness. His weakness was to desire to bear sway in the commonwealth, not indeed by guilt and violence, but by the method of persuasion. Besides his wish to support himself by the influence of Pompey, he was very well pleased with showing the nobility and people, who formed two parties, and, in a manner, two republics in the state, that he was capable of making the balance incline to the side he espoused. It was always his policy to conciliate equally both parties, in declaring sometimes for the one, and sometimes for the other.

*Pompey, who had lately terminated the war with the pirates, was still in Cilicia, when he received letters to inform him of all the people had decreed in his favour. When his friends, who were present, congratulated him, and expressed their joy, it is said, that he knit his brows, struck his thigh, and cried out as if oppressed by, and sorry for, that new command: "God! what endless labours am I devoted to! Should I not have been more happy as a man unknown

[&]quot; and inglorious? Shall I never cease to make war, nor ever have my arms off my back? Shall I never escape the envy

[&]quot;that persecutes me, nor live at peace in the country with

[&]quot; my wife and children?"

Dion. Cass. L xxxvi. p. 20, 21.
 A M. 5038. Ant. J. C. 66. Plut in Pomp. 634—636. Dion. Cass. 1, mxxvi. p. 22—25. App. p. 236.

This is usually enough the language of the ambitious, even of those who are most inordinately actuated by that passion. But, however successful they may be in imposing upon themselves, it seldom happens that they deceive others; and the public is far from mistaking them. The friends of Pompey, and even those who were most intimate with him, could not support his dissimulation at this time. For there was not one of them who did not know, that his natural ambition and passion for command, still more inflamed by his quarrel with Lucullus, made him find a more refined and sensible satisfaction in the new charge conferred upon him; and his actions soon took of the mask, and discovered his real sentiments.

The first step which he took upon arriving in the provinces of his government was to forbid any obedience whatsoever to the orders of Lucullus. In his march he altered every thing which his predecessor had decreed. He exonerated some from the penalties Lucullus had laid upon them; deprived others of the rewards he had given them; in short, his sole view in every thing was to let the partisans of Lucullus see that they adhered to a man who had neither authority nor power. a Strabo's uncle, by the mother's side, highly discontented with Mithridates for having put to death several of his relations, to avenge himself for that cruelty, had gone over to Lucullus, and had given up fifteen places in Cappadocia to him: Lucullus loaded him with honours, and promised to reward him as such considerable services de-Pompey, far from having any regard for such just and reasonable engagements, which his predecessor had entered into solely from the view of the public good, affected an universal opposition to them, and looked upon all those as his enemies who had contracted any friendship with Lucul-

It is not uncommon for a successor to endeavour to lessen the value of his predecessor's actions, in order to arrogate all the honour to himself; but certainly none ever carried that conduct to such monstrous excess as Pompey did at this time. His great qualities and innumerable conquests'are exceedingly extolled; but so base and odious, a jealousy ought to sully, or rather totally eclipse, the glory of them. Such was

the manner in which Pompey thought lit to begin.

Lucullus made bitter complaints of this conduct. Their common friends, in order to a reconciliation, concerted an interview between them. It passed at first with all possible politeness, and with reciprocal marks of esteem and amity. But these were only compliments, and a language that extended no farther than the lips, which costs the great nothing. The heart soon explained itself. The conversation growing warm by degrees, they proceeded to invectives; Pompey

reproaching Lucullus with his avarice, and Lucullus Pompey with his ambition, in which they spoke the truth of each other. They parted more incensed, and greater enemies than before.

Lucullus set out for Rome, whither he carried a great quantity of books, which he had collected in his conquests. Of these he formed a library, which was open to all the learned and curious, whom it drew about him in great numbers. They were received at his house with all possible politeness and generosity. The honour of a triumph was granted to Lucullus, but not without being long contested.

a It was he who first brought cherries to Rome, which, till then, had been unknown in Europe. They were thus

called from Cerasus, a city in Cappadocia.

Pompey began, by engaging Phraates king of the Parthians in the Roman interest. He has been spoken of already, and is the same who was surnamed The God. He concluded an offensive and defensive alliance with him. He offered peace also to Mithridates; but that prince, believing himself sure of the amity and aid of Phraates, would not so much as hear it mentioned. When he was informed that Pomey had anticipated him, he sent to treat with him. But Pompey having demanded, by way of preliminary, that he should lay down his arms, and give up all deserters, those proposals were very near occasioning a mutiny in Mithridates's armv. As there were abundance of deserters in it, they could not not suffer any thing to be said upon delivering them up to Pompey; nor would the rest of the army consent to see themselves weakened by the loss of their comrades. To appease them Mithridates was obliged to tell them, that he had sent his ambassadors only to inspect the condition of the Roman army; and to swear that he would not make peace with the Romans either on those or on any other conditions.

Pompey having distributed his fleet in different stations, to guard the whole sea between Phenicia and the Bosphorus, marched by land against Mithridates, who had still thirty thousand foot, and two or three thousand horse; but did not dare however to come to a battle. That prince was encamped very strongly upon a mountain, where he could not be forced; but he abandoned it on Pompey's approach, for want of water. Pompey immediately took possession of it, and conjecturing, from the nature of the plants and other signs, that there was an abundance of springs within it, he ordered wells to be dug, and in an instant the camp had water in abundance. Pompey could not sufficiently wonder how Mithridates, for want of attention and curiosity, had been so long important of so important and necessary a resource.

Soon after he followed him, encamped near him, and shut him up within strong walls, which he carried quite round his camp. They were almost eight a leagues in circumference, and were fortified with strong towers, at proper distances from each other. Mithridates, either through fear or negligence, suffered him to finish his works. Pompey's plan was to starve him out. And in fact he reduced him to such a want of provisions, that his troops were obliged to subsist upon the carriage-beasts in their camp. The horses alone were spared. After having sustained this kind of siege for almost fifty days, Mithridates escaped by night undiscovered, with all the best troops of his army, having first ordered all the useless and sick persons to be killed.

Pompey immediately pursued him, came up with him near the Euphrates, encamped near him; and apprehending, that, in order to escape, he would make haste to pass the river, he quitted his entrenchments, and advanced against him by night in order of battle. His design was merely to surround the enemy, to prevent their flying, and to attack them at day-break the next morning. But all his old officers made such intreaties and remonstrances to him, that they induced him to fight without waiting till day; for the night was not very dark, the moon giving light enough for distinguishing objects, and knowing one another. Poinpey could no withstand the ardour of his troops, and led them on against the enemy. The Barbarians were afraid to stand the attack, and fled immediately in the utmost consternation. The Romans made a great slaughter of them, killed above ten thou

and men, and took their whole camp.

Mithridates, with eight hundred horse, in the beginning of the battle, opened himself a way sword in hand through the Roman army, and went off. But those eight hundred horse soon quitted their ranks and dispersed, and left him with only three followers, of which number was Hypsicratia, one of his wives, a woman of masculine courage and warlike boldness; which occasioned her being called Hypsicrates, by changing the termination of her name from the feminine to the masculine. She was mounted that day upon a Persian horse, and wore the habit of a soldier of that nation. She continued to attend the king, without giving way to the fatigues of his long journeys, or being weary of serving him, though she took care of his horse herself, till they arrived at a fortress, where the king's treasures and most precious effects lay. There, after having distributed the most magnificent of his robes to such as were assembled about him, he made a present to each of his friends of a mortal poison, that none of them might fall alive into the hands of their enemies. but by their own consent.

[&]quot; One hundred and fifty stadia.

b Ultra feeminam ferox. Tacit

"That unhappy fugitive saw no other hopes for him, than from his son in-law Tigranes. He sent ambassadors to demand his permission to take refuge in his dominions, and aid for the re-establishment of his entirely ruined affairs. Tigranes was at that time at war with his son. He caused those ambassadors to be seized, and thrown into prison, and set a price upon his father-in-law's head, promising an hundred takents to whoseever should seize or kill him; under pretence that it was Mithridates who had made his son take up arms against him; but in reality to make his court to the Romans, as we shall soon see.

Pompey, after the victory he had gained, marched into Armenia Major against Tigranes. He found him at war with his son, who bore the same name with himself. We have already mentioned that the king of Armenia had espoused Cleopatra, the daughter of Mithridates. He had three sons by her, two of whom he had put to death without reason. The third, to escape the cruelty of so unnatural a father, had fled to Phraates, king of Parthia, whose daughter he had married. His father-in-law carried him back to Armenia at the head of an army, where they besieged Artaxata. But finding the place very strong, and provided with every thing ' necessary for a good defence, Phraates left him part of the army to carry on the siege, and returned with the rest into his own dominions. Tigranes, the father, soon after fell upon the son with all his troops, beat his army, and drove them out of the country. That young prince, after this misfortune, had designed to withdraw to his grandfather Mithridates. But on the way he was informed of his defeat, and having lost all hope of obtaining aid from him, he resolved to throw himself into the arms of the Romans. Accordingly, he entered their camp, and went to Pompey to implore his protection. Pompev gave him a very good reception, and was glad of his coming; for being to carry the war into Armenia, he had occasion for such a guide as he. He therefore caused that prince to conduct him directly to Artaxata.

Tigranes, terrified at this news, and sensible that he was not in a condition to oppose so powerful an army, resolved to have recourse to the generosity and clemency of the Roman general. He put into his hands the ambassadors sent to him by Mithridates, and followed them directly himself. Without taking any precaution, he entered the Roman camp, and went to submit his person and crown to the discretion of Pompey and the Romans. • He said, that of all

a Plut. in Pomp. p. 636-637. Appian p. 342. Dion. Cass. l. XXXVI. p. 25b A hundred thousand crowns

c Mox îpse supplex et presens se regnunque ditioni ejus permist, præfatus : neminera slium neque Romanum neque ullius gentis vicum luturum luisse, cujus se fidei, commissurus forst quam Cn. Pompeidim. Prointe omnem sibil

the Romans and of all mankind, Pompey was the only person in whose faith he could confide; that in whatsoever maner he should decide his fate, he should be satisfied; that he was not ashamed to be conquered by a man whom none could conquer; and that it was no dishonour to submit to him.

whom fortune had made superior to all others.

When he arrived on horseback near the entrenchments of the camp, two of Pompey's lictors came out to meet him, and ordered him to dismount and enter on foot; telling him that no stranger had ever been known to enter a Roman camp on horseback. Tigranes obeyed, ungirt his sword, and gave it to the lictors; and afterwards, when he approached Pompey, taking off his diadem, he would have laid it at his feet, and prostrated himself to the earth to embrace his knees. But Pompey ran to prevent him, and taking him by the hand, carried him into his tent, made him sit on the right, and his son, the young Tigranes, on the left side of him. After which he deferred hearing what he had to say to the next day, and invited the father and son to sup with him that evening. The son refused to be there with his father; and as he had not shown him the least mark of respect during the interview, and had treated him with the same indifference as if he had been a stranger, Pompey was very much offended at that behaviour. He did not, however, entirely neglect his interests in determining upon the affair of Tigranes. After having condemned Tigranes to pay the Romans a six thousand talents for the charges of the war he had made against them without cause, and to relinquish to them all his conquest on the hither side of the Euphrates, he decreed, that he should reign in his ancient kingdom, Armenia Major, and that his son should have Gordiana and Sophena, two provinces upon the borders of Armenia, during his father's life, and all the rest of his dominions after his death; reserving, however, to the father the treasures he had in Sophena, without which it would have been impossible for him to have paid the Romans the sum which Pompey required of him.

The father was well satisfied with these conditions, which still left him a crown. But the son, who had entertained chimerical hopes, could not relish a decree which deprived him of what had been promised him. He was even so much discontented with it, that he wanted to escape, in order to excite new troubles. Pompey, who suspected his design, ordered him to be always kept in view; and, upon his ab-

vel adversam vel secundam, cujus auctor ille esset. fortunam, tolerabilem futuram. Non esse turpe ab eo vinci, quem vincere esset nefas: neque ei in homeste aliquem summitti, quem fortuna super omaes attulisset. Vel. Paterc. 1. il. c. 37.

a About 900,000/, sterling.

solutely refusing to consent that his father should withdraw his treasures from Sophena, he caused him to be put into prison. Afterwards, having discovered that he solicited the Armenian nobility to take up arms, and endeavoured to engage the Parthians to do the same, he put him amongst those whom he reserved for his triumph.

A short time after, Phraates, king of the Parthians, sent to Pompey, to claim that young prince as his son in law; and to represent to him, that he ought to make the Euphrates the boundary of his conquests. Pompey made answer, that the younger Tigranes was more related to his father than his father-in-law; and that, as to his conquests, he should give them such bounds as reason and justice requir-

ed; but without being prescribed them by any one.
When Tigranes had been suffered to possess himself of his treasures in Sophena, he paid the six thousand talents, and, besides that, gave every private soldier in the Roman army fafty a drachmas, a thousand b to each centurion, and ten thousand o to each tribune; and by that liberality obtained the title of friend and ally of the Roman people. This would have been pardonable, had he not added to it, abject behaviour and submissions unworthy of a king.

Pompey gave all Cappadocia to Ariobarzanes, and added to it Sophena and Cordiana, which he had designed for young

Tigranes.

d After having regulated every thing in Armenia, Pompey marched northwards in pursuit of Mithridates. Upon the banks of the Cyrus he found the Albanians and Iberians, two powerful nations, situate between the Caspian and Euxine Seas, who endeavoured to stop him; but he beat them, and obliged the Albanians to demand peace. He granted it,

and passed the winter in their country.

The next year he took the field very early against the Iberians. This was a very warlike nation, and had never hithorso been conquered. It had always retained its liberty, during the time that the Medes, Persians, and Macedonians, had successively possessed the empire of Asia. Pompey found means to subdue this people, though not without very considerable difficulties, and obliged them to demand peace. The king of the Iberians sent him a bed, a table, and a throne, all of massy gold; desiring him to accept those presents as earnests of his amity. Pompey put them into the hands of the questors for the public treasury. He also subjected the people of Colchis, and made their king Olthaces prisoner, whom he afterwards led in triumph. From thence

a About 22s,
b About 25d, sterling,
c About 25d, sterling,
d Plut, in Pomp. p. 637, Dion Cass. l. xxvi c. 28-3. Appian. p. 245,
15.
f A. M. 3030. Amt. J. C. 65. 245.

he returned into Albania, to chastise that nation for having taken up arms again, whilst he was engaged with the Ibe-

rians and people of Colchis.

The army of the Albanians was commanded by Cosis, the brother of king Orodes. That prince, as soon as the two armies came to blows, singled out Pompey, and spurring furiously up to him, darted his javelin at him. But Pompey received him so vigorously with his spear, that it went through his body, and laid him dead at his horse's feet. The Albanians were overthrown, and a great slaughter was made of them. This victory obliged king Orodes to buy a second peace upon the same terms with that which he had made with the Romans the year before, at the price of great presents, and by giving one of his sons as an hostage for his

observing it better than he had done the former. Mithridates, in the mean time, had passed the winter at Dioscurias, in the north-east of the Euxine Sea. Early in the spring he marched to the Cimmerian Bosphorus, through several nations of the Scythians, some of which suffered him to pass voluntarily, and others were obliged to it by force. The kingdom of the Commerian Bosphorus is the same which is now called Crim Tartary, and was at that time a province of Mithridates's empire. He had assigned it as an establishment to one of his sons, named Machares. But that young prince had been so vigorously pressed by the Romans, whilst they besieged Sinope, and their fleet was in possession of the Euxine Sea, which lay between that city and his kingdom, that he had been obliged to make a peace with them, and had inviolably observed it till then. He well knew that his father was extremely displeased with such conduct, and therefore very much dreaded meeting him. In order to a reconciliation, he sent ambassadors to him upon his route, who represented to him, that he had been reduced to act in that manner, contrary to his inclination, by the necessity of his affairs. But finding that his father would not hearken to his reasons, he endeavoured to escape by sea, and was taken by vessels sent expressly by Mithridates to cruise in his way. He chose rather to die than fall into his father's hands.

Pompey, having terminated the war in the north, and seeing it impossible to follow Mithridates in the remote country into which he had retired, led back his army to the south, and on his march subjected Darius, king of the Medes, and Antiochus, king of Comagena. He went on to Syria, and made himself master of the whole empire. Scaurus reduced Cœlosyria and Damascus, and Gabinius all the rest of the country, as far as the Tygris; they were two of his

lieutenant-generals. Antiochus Asiaticus, son of Antiochus Eusebes, heir of the house of the Seleucide, who, by Lucullus's permission, had reigned four years in part of that country, of which he had taken possession when Tigranes abandoned it, came to solicit him to re-establish him upon the throne of his ancestors. But Pompey refused to give him audience, and deprived him of all his dominions, which he made a Roman province. Thus, whilst Tigranes was left in possession of Armenia, who had done the Romans great hurt, during the course of a long war, Antiochus was dethroned, who had never committed the least hostility, and by no means deserved such treatment. The reason given for it was, that the Romans had conquered Syria from Tigranes; that it was not just that they should lose the fruit of their victory; that Antiochus was a prince who had neither the courage nor capacity necessary for the defence of the country; and that to put it into his hands would be to expose it to the perpetual ravages and incursions of the Jews and Arabians, which Pompey took care not to do. In consequence of this way of reasoning. Antiochus lost his crown, and was reduced to the necessity of passing his life as a private person. In him ended the empire of the Seleucidz, after a duration of almost two hundred and fifty years b.

During these expeditions of the Romans in Asia, great revolutions happened in Egypt. The Alexandrians, weary of their king Alexander, took up arms, and, after having expelled him, called in Ptolemy Auletes to supply his place. That history will be treated at large in the ensuing article.

c Pompey afterwards went to Damascus, where he regulated several affairs relating to Egypt and Judza. During his residence there, twelve crowned heads went thither to make their court to him, and were all in the city at the same

d A fine contention between the love of a father and the duty of a son was seen at this time, a very extraordinary contest in those days, when the most horrid murders and parricides frequently opened the way to thrones. Ariobarzanes, king of Cappadocia, voluntarily resigned the crown in favour of his son, and put the diadem on his head in the presence of Pompey. The most sincere tears flowed in abundance from the eyes of the son, who was truly afflicted for what others would have highly rejoiced. It was the sole occasion in which he thought disobedience allowable; and he would have e persisted in refusing the sceptre, if Pompey's

e Appian in Syr. p. 133. Justin l. zl. c. 2. § A. M. 3939. Ant. J. C. 65. e Plut. in Pomp. p, 638, 639.

d Val. Max. l. v. c. 7. e Nee ullum finem tam egregium certamen habulssot, zisi patrize volumifii zuetoritas Pompeji adfuisset. Val. Max.

orders had not interfered, and obliged him at length to submit to paternal authority. This is the second example Cappadocia has displayed of such a contest of generosity. We have spoken in its place of a similar contest between the two Ariarathes.

As Mithridates was in possession of several strong places in Pontus and Cappadocia, Pompey judged it necessary to return thither in order to reduce them. He made himself master of almost all of them upon his arrival, and after-

wards wintered at Aspis, a city of Pontus.

Stratonice, one of Mithridates's wives, surrendered a castle of the Bosphorus, which she had in her keeping, to Pompey, with the treasures concealed in it, demanding only for recompense, that if her son Xiphares should fall into his hands, he should be restored to her. Pompey accepted only such of those presents as would serve for the ornaments of temples. When Mithridates knew what Stratonice had done, to revenge her facility in surrendering that fortress, which he considered as a treason, he killed Xiphares in his mother's sight, who beheld that sad spectacle from the other side of the strait.

Caina, or the new city, was the strongest place in Pontus, and therefore Mithridates kept the greatest part of his treasures, and whatever he had of greatest value, in that place, which he conceived impregnable. Pompey took it, and with it all that Mithridates had left in it. Amongst other things were found secret memoirs, written by himself, which gave a very good light into his character. In one part he had noted down the persons he had poisoned, amongst whom were his own son Ariarathes, and Alcaus, of Sardis; the latter. because he had carried the prize in the chariot-race against him. What fantastical records were these! Was heafraid that the public and posterity should not be informed of his monstrous crimes, and his motives for committing them?

4 His memoirs of physic were also found there, which Pompey caused to be translated into Latin by Lenzus, a good grammarian, one of his freedmen; and they were afterwards made public in that language. For, amongst the other extraordinary qualities of Mithridates, he was very skilful in medicine. It was he who invented the excellent antidote which still bears his name, and from which physicians have experienced such effects, that they continue to use it suc-

cessfully to this day.

b Pompey, during his stay at Aspis, made such regulations in the affairs of the country, as the state of them would ad-

a Plin. l. xxv. e 20. 6 A. M. 3940. Ant. J C 64. Joseph Antiq. L niv. 5, 6. Plut in Pomp. p. 639-641. Dion. Cass. l. X.xvii. p. 34-36. Aj piam, p. 246-781.

Sect. IV.

mit. As soon as the spring returned, he marched back into Syria for the same purpose. He did not think it advisable to pursue Mithridates in the kingdom of Bosphorus, whither he was returned. To do that, he must have marched round the Euxine Sea with an army, and passed through many countries, either inhabited by barbarous nations, or entirely desert; a very dangerous enterprise, in which he would have run great risk of perishing. So that all Pompey could do was to post the Roman fleet in such a manner as to intercept any convoys that might be sent to Mithridates. He believed, by that means, he should be able to reduce him to the last extremity; and said, on setting out, that he left Mithridates more formidable enemies than the Romans, which were hunger and necessity.

What carried him with so much ardour into Syria was his excessive and vain-glorious ambition to push his conquests as far as the Red Sea. In Spain, and before that in Africa, he had carried the Roman arms as far as the Western Ocean on both sides of the straits of the Mediterranean. In the war against the Albanians, he had extended his conquests to the Caspian Sea, and believed there was nothing wanting to his glory, but to push them on as far as the Red Sea. Upon his arrival in Syria, he declared Antioch and Seleucia, upon the Orontes, free cities, and continued his march towards Damascus; from whence he designed to have gone on against the Arabians, and afterwards to have conquered all the countries to the Red Sea. But an accident happened which obliged him to suspend all his projects, and to return inte

Pontus.

Some time before, an embassy had come to him from Mithridates, who demanded peace. He proposed, that he should be suffered to retain his hereditary dominions, as Tigranes had been, upon condition of paying a tribute to the Romans, and resigning all his other provinces. Pompey replied, that then he should also come in person, as Tigranes had done. Mithridates could not consent to such a meanness, but proposed sending his children, and some of his principal friends. Pompey would not agree to that. The negotiation broke off, and Mithridates applied himself to making preparations for war with as much vigour as ever. Pompey, who received advice of this activity, judged it necessary to be upon the spot, in order to have an eye to every thing. For that purpose, he went to pass some time at Amisus, the ancient capital of the country. There, through the just punishment of the gods, says Plutarch, his ambition made him commit faults, which drew upon him the blame of all the world. He had publicly charged and reproached Lucullus, for having, while the war still raged, disposed of provinces, gir

newards, decreed honours, and acted in all things as victors are not accustomed to act, till a war is finally terminated: and now he fell into the same inconsistency himself. For he disposed of governments, and divided the dominions of Mithridates into provinces, as if the war had been at an end. But Mithridates still lived, and every thing was to be apprehended from a prince inexhaustible in resources, whom the greatest defeats could not disconcert, and whom losses themselves seemed to inspire with new courage, and to supply with new strength. And indeed at that very time, when he was believed to be irretrievably ruined, he was actually meditating a terrible invasion into the very heart of the Roman empire with the troops he had lately raised.

Pompey, in the distribution of rewards, gave Armenia Minor to Dejotarus, prince of Galatia, who had always continued firmly attached to the Roman interests during this war, to which he added the title of king. It was this Dejotarus who, by always persisting, through gratitude in his adherence to Pompey, incurred the resentment of Casar, and had occasion for the eloquence of Cicero to defend him.

He made Archelaus also high-priest of the moon, who was the supreme goddess of the Comanians in Pontus, and gave him the sovereignty of the place, which contained at least six thousand persons, all devoted to the worship of that deity. I have already observed, that this Archelaus was the son of him who had commanded in chief the troops sent by Mithridates into Greece in his first war with the Romans, and who, being disgraced by that prince, had, with his son, taken refuge amongst them. They had always from that time continued their firm adherents, and had been of great use to them in the wars of Asia. The father being dead, the highpriesthood of Comana, and the sovereignty annexed to it, was given to the son, in recompense for the services of both.

During Pompey's stay in Pontus, Aretas, king of Arabia Petræa, took advantage of his absence to make incursions into Syria, which very much distressed the inhabitants. Pompey returned thither. Upon his way he came to the place where lay the dead bodies of the Romans killed in the defeat of Triarius. He caused them to be interred with great solemnity, which gained him the hearts of his soldiers. From thence he continued his march towards Syria, with the view of executing the projects he had formed for the war of Arabia; but news of importance interrupted those

designs.

Though Mithridates had lost all hopes of peace, ever since Pompey had rejected the overtures he had caused to be made to him; and though he saw many of his subjects abandon his party, far from losing courage, he had formed the

design of crossing Pannonia, and passing the Alps to attack the Romans in Italy itself, as Hannibal had done before him: a project more bold than prudent, with which his inveterate hatred and blind despair had inspired him. A great number of the neighbouring Scythians had entered themselves in his. service, and considerably augmented his army. He had sent deputies into Gaul to solicit that people to join him, when he should approach the Alps. As great passions are always credulous, and men easily flatter themselves in what they ardently desire, he was in hopes that the flame of the revolt among the slaves in Italy and Sicily, perhaps ill extinguished. mught suddenly rekindle upon his presence; that the pirates would soon repossess themselves of the empire of the sea, and involve the Romans in new difficulties; and that the provinces, oppressed by the avarice and cruelty of the magistrates and generals, would be anxious to threw off the yoke by his aid, under which they had so long grouned. Such were the thoughts that he had revolved in his mind.

But as, in order to execute this project, it was necessary to march more than five hundred leagues, and traverse the countries now called Little Tartary, Podolia, Moldavia, Wallachia, Transylvania, Hungary, Styria, Carinthia, the Tirol, and Lombardy, and pass three great rivers, the Borysthenes, Danube, and Po, the bare idea of so toilsome and dangerous a march threw his army into such terror, that, to prevent the execution of his design, they conspired against him, and chose Pharnaces, his son, king, who had been ac-tive in exciting the soldiers to this revolt. Mithridates then, seeing himself abandoned by all the world, and that even his son would not suffer him to escape where he could, retired to his apartment, and, after having given poison to such of his wives, concubines, and daughters, as were with him at that time, he took the same himself; but, when he perceived that it had not its effect upon him, he had recourse to his sword. The wound he gave himself not sufficing, he was oblized to desire a Gaulish soldier to put an end to his life. Dion says, he was killed by his own son.

Mithridates had reigned sixty years, and lived seventytwo. His greatest fear was of falling into the hands of the Romans, and of being led in triumph. To prevent that misfortune, he always carried poison about him, in order to escape that way if other means should fail. The apprehension he was in, lest his son should deliver him up to Pompey, occasioned his taking the fatal resolution which he executed so suddenly. It is generally said, that the reason that the poison which he drank did not kill him was his having taken antidetes so much, that his constitution was proof against it But this is believed an error, and that it is impossible any remedy should be an universal antitode against all the dif-

ferent species of poison.

Pompey was at Jericho in Palestine, whither the differences between Hyrcanus and Aristobulus, of which we have spoken elsewhere, had carried him, when he received the first news of Mithridates's death. It was brought him by expresses dispatched on purpose from Pontus, with letters from his lieutenants. Those expresses arriving with their lances crowned with laurels, which was customary only when they brought advice of some victory, or news of great importance and advantage, the army was very eager and solicitous to know what it was. As they had only begun to form their camp, and had not erected the tribunal from which the general harangued the troops, without staying to raise one of turf, as was usual, because that would take up too much time, they made one of the packs of their carriage horses, upon which Pompey mounted without ceremony. He acquainted them with the death of Mithridates and the manner of his killing himself, that his son Pharnaces submitted himself and his dominions to the Romans, and that thereby that tedious war, which had endured so long, was at length terminated. This was a subject of great joy to both the army and general.

Such was the end of Mithridates; a prince, says an historian, of whom it is difficult either to speak or be silent; full of activity in war, of distinguished courage; sometimes very great through the favours of fortune, and always through his invincible resolution; truly a general in his prudence and counsel, and a soldier by his bold and hazardous exploits; a second Hannibal in his hatred of the Romans.

Cicero says of Mithridates, that after Alexander he was the greatest of kings: b Illerex post Alexandrum maximus. It is certain that the Romans never had such a king in arms against them. Nor can we deny that he had his great qualities; a vast extent of mind that embraced every subject; a superiority of genius capable of the greatest undertakings; a constancy of soul that the severest misfortunes could not depress; an industry and bravery inexhaustible in resources, and which after the greatest losses brought him on a sudden again on the stage more powerful and formidable than ever. I cannot, however, believe, that he was a consummate general; that idea does not seem to result from his actions. He obtained great advantages at first; but against generals without either merit or experience. When Sylla, Lucullus, and Pompey, opposed him, it does not appear he acquired

a Vir neque silendus neque dicendus sine cura; bello acerrimus; virtute esimius: aliquando fortuna, semper anmo maximus; consiliis dux, miles manu soio in Romanos Annibal. Vel. Patere. l.ii. c. 18, b Academ, Quest. l. iv. a. 3,

any great honour, either by his address in posting himself to advantage, by his presence of mind in unexpected emergencies, or intrepidity in the heat of action. But, should we admit him to have all the qualities of a great captain, he cannot but be considered with horror, when we reflect upon the imumerable murders and parricides with which he polluted his reign, and that inhuman cruelty which regarded neither mother, wives, children, nor friends, and which sacrificed every thing to his insatiable ambition.

a Pompey, being arrived in Syria, went directly to Damascus, with design to set out from thence to begin at length the war with Arabia. When Aretas, the king of that country, saw him upon the point of entering his dominions, he

sent an embassy to make his submissions.

The troubles of Judza employed Pompey some time. He returned afterwards into Syria, from whence he set out for Pontus. Upon his arrival at Amisus, he found the body of Mithridates there, which Pharnaces his son had sent to him; no doubt, to convince Pompey by his own eyes of the death of an enemy who had occasioned him so many difficulties and fatigues. He had added great presents, in order to conciliate his favour. Pompey accepted the presents; but for the body of Mithridates, looking upon their enmity as extinguished by death, he did it all the honours due to the remains of a king, seat it to the city of Sinope to be interred there with the kings of Pontus, his ancestors, who had long been buried in that place, and ordered the sums that were necessary for the solemaity of a royal funeral.

In this last journey he took possession of all the places in the hands of those to whom Mithridates had confided them. He found immense riches in some of them, especially at Telaurus, where part of Mithridates's most valuable effects and precious jewels were kept; his principal arsenal was also in the same place. Amongst these were two thousand cups of onyx, set and adorned with gold; with so prodigious a quantity of all kinds of plate, furniture, and military accourtements for man and horse, that it cost the questor or treasurer of the army thirty entire days in taking the inven-

tory of them.

Pompey granted Pharnaces the kingdom of Bosphorus, as a reward for his parricide, declared him the friend and ally of the Roman people, and marched into the province of Asia, in order to winter at Ephesus. Here he distributed rewards to his victorious army. He gave each of his soldiers fifteen hundred drachmas (about 371. sterling) and to the officers according to their several posts. The total sum

a A. M. 3941. Ant. J. C. 63. Joseph. Antiq. 1. xiv. c. 4, 8, ct de Bell. Jud. 1, 5. Plut. in Pomp. p. 641. Appian. p. 260. Dion. Cass. 1. xxxvi. p. 35 and 36. Vel., VPII.

to which his liberalities amounted, all raised out of the spoils of the enemy, was sixteen thousand talents; that is to say, about two millions four hundred thousand pounds; besides which, he had twenty thousand more (three millions) to put into the treasury at Rome, upon the day of his entry.

"His triumph continued two days, and was celebrated with extraordinary magnificence. Pompey caused three hundred and twenty-four captives of the highest distinction to march before his chariot; Tigranes, the son of Tigranes, king of Armenia; amongst whom were Aristobulus, king of Judæa, with his son Antigonus; Olthaces, king of Colchis; the sister, five sons, and two daughters, of Mithridates. In the place of that king's person, his throne, sceptre, and a colossal busto of gold of eight cubits, or twelve feet in height, were carried in triumph.

& A. M. 3843. Ant. J. C. 61.

BOOK THE TWENTY-THIRD.

THE

HISTORY

OF

EGYPT.

SECT. I.

Ptolemaus Auletes had been placed upon the throne of Reynt in the room of Alexander.

We have seen in what manner Ptolemy Auletes ascended the throne of Egypt. Alexander, his predecessor, upon his being expelled by his subjects, withdrew to Tyre, where he died some time after. As he left no issue, nor any other legitimate prince of the blood-royal, he made the Roman people his heirs. The senate, for the reasons I have repeated elsewhere, did not judge it proper at that time to take possession of the dominions left them by Alexander's will; but, to show that they did not renounce their right, they resolved to call in part of the inheritance, and sent deputies to Tyre to demand a sum of money left there by that king at his death.

The pretensions of the Roman people were under no restrictions; and it would have been a very insecure establishment to possess a state to which they believed they had so just a claim, unless some means were found to make them renounce it. All the kings of Egypt had been friends and allies of Rome. For Ptolemy to get himself declared an ally by the Romans was a certain means to his being authentically acknowledged king of Egypt by them. But, by how much the more important that qualification was to him, so much the more difficult was it for him to obtain it. His predecessor's will was still fresh in the memory of every body; and as princes are seldom pardoned for defects which de

not suit their condition, though they are often spared for those that are much more hurtful, the surname of *Player* on the *Plute*, which he had drawn upon himself, had ranked him as low in the esteem of the Romans as in that of the

Revotians.

He did not, however, despair of success in his undertakings. All the methods, which he took for the attainment of his end, were a long time ineffectual; and it is likely they would always have been so, if Casar had never been consul. That ambitious spirit, who believed all means and expedients just that conduced to his ends, being immensely in debt, and finding that king disposed to merit by money what he could not obtain by right, sold him the alliance of Rome at as dear a price as he was willing to buy it; and received for the purchase, as well for himself as for Pompey, whose credit was necessary to him for obtaining the people's consent, almost six thousand talents, that is to say, almost nine hundred thousand pounds. At this price he was declared the friend and ally of the Roman people.

Though that prince's yearly revenues were twice the amount of this sum, he could not immediately raise the money without exceedingly over-taxing his subjects. They were already highly discontented by his not claiming the isle of Cyprus as an ancient dependence of Egypt, and in case of refusal, declaring war against the Romans. In this disposition, the extraordinary imposts he was obliged to exact having finally exasperated them, they rose with so much violence, that he was forced to fly for the security of his life. He concealed his route so well, that the Egyptians either believed, or feigned to believe, that he had perished. They declared Berenice, the eldest of his three daughters, queen, though he had two sons, because they were both much young-

er than she.

c Ptolemy, however, having landed at the isle of Rhodes, which was in his way to Rome, was informed that Cato, who, after his death, was called Cato of Utica, was also arrived there some time before. That prince, being glad of the opportunity to confer with him upon his own affairs, sent immediately to let him know his arrival, expecting that he would come directly to visit him. We may here see an instance of Roman grandeur, or rather haughtiness. Cato ordered him to be told, that, if he had any thing to say to him he might come to him, if he thought fit. Cato did not vouchsafe so much as to rise when Ptolemy entered his chamber, and, saluting him only as a common man, bade him sit down.

a Sueton in Jul. Cas. e. liv. Dion. Cas. l. xxxix. p. 97. Strab. l. xvii. p. 796.

b A. M. 3946. Ant. J. C. 57. c Plut in Cato. Utie. p. 776.

The king, though in some confusion upon this reception, could not but inwardly wonder how so much haughtiness and state could unite in the same person with the simplicity and modesty that appeared in his habit and all his equipage. But he was still more surprised, when, upon entering upon business, Cato blamed him, in direct terms, for quitting the finest kingdom in the world, to expose himself to the pride and insatiable avarice of the Roman grandees; and to suffer a thousand indignities. He did not scruple to tell him, that, though he should sell all Egypt, he would not have sufficient to satisfy their avidity. He advised him, therefore, to return to Egypt, and reconcile himself with his subjects; adding, that he was ready to accompany him thither, and offering him his mediation and good offices for that purpose.

Ptolemy, upon this discourse, recovered as out of a dream, and having maturely considered what the wise Roman had told him, perceived the error he had committed in quitting his kingdom, and entertained thoughts of returning to it. But the friends he had with him, being gained by Pompey to make him go to Rome (one may easily guess with what views), dissuaded him from following Cato's good advice. He had full time to repent it, when he found himself, in that proud city, reduced to solicit the magistrates upon his busi-

ness from door to door like a private person.

· Casar, upon whom his principul hopes were founded, was not at Rome: he was at that time making war in Gaul. But Pompey, who was there, gave him an apartment in his house, and omitted nothing to serve him. Besides the money which he had received from that prince, in conjunction with Cæsar, Ptolemy had formerly cultivated his friendship by various services which he had rendered him during the war with Mithridates, and had maintained at his own charge eight thousand horse for him in that of Judza. Having, therefore, made his complaint to the senate of the rebellion of his subjects, he demanded that they should oblige them to return to their obedience, as the Romans were engaged to do by the alliance granted him. Pompey's faction obtained for him a compliance with his request. The consul Lentulus, to whom Cilicia, separated from Egypt only by the coast of Sy fia, had fallen by lot, was charged with the re-establishment of Ptolemy upon the throne.

è But, before his consulship expired, the Egyptians having been informed that their king was not dead, as they believed, and that he was gone to Rome, sent thither a solemn embassy, to justify their revolt before the senate. That embassy con-

a Dion. Cass. l. xxxix. p. 97, 98. Plin. l. xxxiii. c. 10. Ciç. ad Famil. l. i. ep.: 1—4. Id. in Figo. n. 45—50 Id. pro Cal. n. 23, 24, b A. M. 3947. Ant. J. C. 57.

sisted of more than an hundred persons, of whom the chief was a celebrated philosopher, named Dion, who had considerable friends at Rome. Ptolemy, having received advice of this, found means to destroy most of those ambassadors, either by poison or the sword, and intimidated those so much whom he could neither corrupt nor kill, that they were afraid either to acquit themselves of their commission, or to demand justice for so many murders. But, as all the world knew his cruelty, it made him as highly odious as he was before contemptible; and his immense profusion, in gaining the poorest and most self-interested senators, became so public, that nothing else was talked of throughout the city.

So notorious a contempt of the laws, and such an excess of audacity, excited the indignation of all the persons of integrity in the senate. M. Favonius, the stoic philosopher, was the first in it who declared himself against Ptolemy. Upon his motion it was resolved, that Dion should be ordered to attend, in order to their knowing the truth from his own mouth. But the king's party, composed of that of Pompey and Lentulus, of such as he had corrupted with money, and of those who had lent him sums to corrupt others, acted so openly in his favour, that Dion did not dare to appear; and Ptolemy, having caused him also to be killed some short time after, though he who did the murder was accused in due form of law, the king was exculpated, upon maintaining, that he had just cause for the action.

Whether that prince thought that he had nothing further to transact at Rome, that demanded his presence, or apprehended receiving some affront, hated as he was, if he continued there any longer, he set out from thence some few days after, and retired to Ephesus, into the temple of the goddess,

to wait there the dicision of his destiny.

His affair, in fact, made more noise than ever at Rome. One of the tribunes of the people, named C. Cato, an active, enterprising young man, who did not want eloquence, declared himself, in frequent harangues, against Ptolemy and Lentulus, and was hearkened to by the people with singular

pleasure and extraordinary applause.

a In order to put a new engine in motion, he waited till the new consuls were elected, and as soon as Lentulus had quitted that office, he produced to the people an oracle of the Sybil's, which ran thus, "If a king of Egypt, having occa "sion for aid, applies to you, you shall not refuse him your "amity: but, however, you shall not give him any troops; for if you do, you will suffer and hazard much."

The usual form was to communicate this kind of oracles first to the senate, in order to examine whether they were

proper to be divulged. But Cato, apprehending that the king's faction might occasion the passing a resolution there to suppress this, which was so opposite to that prince, immediately presented the priests, with whom the sacred books were deposited, to the people, and obliged them by the authority which his office of tribune gave him, to expose what they had found in them to the public, without demanding the senate's opinion.

This was a new thunder-stroke to Ptolemy and Lentulus. The words of the Sybil were too express not to make all the impression upon the vulgar, which their enemies desired. So that Lentulus, whose consulship was expired, not being willing to receive the affront to his face, of having the senate's decree revoked, by which he was appointed to reinstate Ptolemy, set out immediately for his province, in quality of pro-

consul.

He was not deceived. Some days after, one of the new consuls, named Marcellinus, the declared enemy of Pompey, having proposed the oracle to the senate, it was decreed, that regard should be had to it, and that it appeared dangerous for the commonwealth to re-establish the king of Egypt by

force.

We must not believe there was any person in the senate so simple, or rather so stupid, as to have any faith in such an eracle. Nobody doubted, but that it had been expressly contrived for the present conjuncture, and was the work of some secret political intrigue. But it had been published and approved in the assembly of the people, credulous and superstitious to excess, and the senate could pass no other judg-

ment upon it.

This new incident obliged Ptolemy to change his measures. Seeing that Lentulus had too many enemies at Rome, he abandoned the decree by which he had been commissioned for his re-establishment, and demanded by Ammonius, his ambassador, whom he had left at Rome, that Pompey should be appointed to execute the same commission, because, it not being possible to execute it with open force, upon account of the oracle, he judged, with reason, that it was necessary to substitute, in the room of force, a person of great authority; and Pompey was at that time at the highest pitch of his giory, occasioned by his success in having destroyed Mithridates, the greatest and most powerful king Asia had seen since Alexander.

The affair was discussed in the senate, and debated with great vivacity by the different parties that rose up in it. 4 The difference of opinions caused several sittings to be spent without any determination. Cicero never quitted the interest of

Lentulus, his intimate friend, who during his consulship had infinitely contributed to his recal from banishment. But what means were there to render him any service, in the condition things stood? And what could that proconsul do against a great kingdom, without using force of arms, which was expressly forbidden by the oracle? In this manner, people of little wit and subtilty, that were not used to consider things in different lights, would have thought. The oracle only prohibited giving the king any troops for his re-establishment. Could not Lentulus have left him in some place near the frontiers, and go, however, with a good army to besiege Alexandria. After he had taken it he might have returned, leaving a strong garrison in the place, and then sent the king thither, who would have found all things disposed for his reception without violence or troops. This was Cicero's advice; to confirm which, I shall repeat his own words, taken from a letter written by him at that time to Lentulus: "You are "the best judge (he says), as you are master of Cilicia and "Cyprus, of what you can undertake and effect. If it seems " practicable for you to take Alexandria, and possess your-" self of the rest of Egypt, it is, without doubt, both for your "own honour and that of the commonwealth, that you " should go thither with your fleet and army, leaving the king " at Ptolemais, or in some other neighbouring place; in or-" der that, after you have appeased the revolt, and left strong " garrisons where necessary, that prince may safely return "thither. "In this manner you will reinstate him, according to the senate's first decree, and he be restored without "troops, which our zealots assure us is the sense of the Si-"byl." Would one believe that a grave magistrate, in an affair so important as that at present in question, should be capable of an evasion, which appears so little consistent with the integrity and probity upon which Cicero valued himself? It was, because he reckoned the pretended oracle of the Sibyl to be what indeed it was, that is to say, a mere contrivance and imposture.

Lentulus, stopped by the difficulties of that enterprise, which were great and real, was afraid to engage in it, and took the advice Cicero gave him in the conclusion of his letter, where he represented, "That all b the world would "judge of his conduct from the event; that therefore he had "only to take his measures so well, as to assure his success; "and that otherwise, he would do better not to undertake

46 jt."

g I ta tore ut per te restituatur, quemadmodum initio senatus censuit ; et siss multitudine reducatur, quemadmodum homines religiosi Sibyliz placare disc

b Ex eventu homines de tuo comilio esse judicaturos, videmus.—Nos quident hoc sentimus a i exploratum tibi at, posse te illius regui pouri, mon asse qui estandum; ana dubium, non esse conangum.

Gabinius, who commanded in Syria in the quality of proconsul, was less apprehensive and less cautious. Though every proconsul was prohibited by a positive law to quit his province, or declare any war whatsoever, even upon the nearest borderer, without an express order of the senate, he had marched to the aid of Mithridates, prince of Parthia, who had been expelled by the king, his brother, from Media, which kingdom had fallen to his share. "He had already passed the Euphrates with his army for that purpose, when Ptolemy joined him with letters from Pompey, their common friend and patron, who had very lately been declared consul for the year casuing. By those letters he conjured Gabinius to do his utmost in favour of the proposals that prince should make him, with regard to his re-establishment in his kingdom. However dangerous that conduct might be, the authority of Pompey, and still more, the hope of considerable gain, made Gabinius begin to waver. The pressing remonstrances of Antony, who sought occasions to signalize himself, and was besides inclined to please Ptolemy, whose intreaties flattered his ambition, fully determined him. This was the famous Mark Antony, who afterwards formed the second triumvirate with Octavius and Lepidus. Gabinius had engaged him to follow him into Syria, by giving him the command of his cavalry. The more dangerous the enterprise the more Gabinius thought he had a right to make Ptolemy pay dear for The latter, who found no difficulty in agreeing to any terms, offered him for himself and the army ten thousand talents, or fifteen hundred thousand pounds, the greatest part to be advanced immediately in ready money, and the rest as soon as he should be reinstated. Gabinius accepted the offer without hesitation.

b Egypt had continued under the government of queen Berenice. As soon as she ascended the throne, the Egyptians had sent to offer the crown, and Berenice, to Antiochus Asiaticus, in Syria, who, by his mother Selene's side, was the nearest heir male. The ambassadors found him dead, and returned: they brought an account, that his brother Seleucus, surnamed Cybiosactes, was still alive. The same offers were made to him, which he accepted. He was a prince of mean and sordid inclinations, and had no thoughts but of amassing money. His first care was to cause the body of Alexander the Great to be put into a coffin of glass, in order to seize that of gold, in which it had lain untouched till then. This action, and many others of a like nature, having rendered him equally odious to his queen and subjects, she caused him to be strangled soon after. He was the last prince of the

a A. M. 3949 Ant. J. C. 55. Appian. in Syr p. 120 and in Parth. p. 136. Fig. Aption. p. 916 917. 6 Strab. l. xiv. p. 538. Ed. l. xvii. p. 794-796. Dion. Cam. l. mxiz. p. 117. Cio. in Pipen. m. 49, 69.

race of the Seleucidz. She afterwards espoused Archelaus, high-priest of Comana, in Pontus, who called himself the son of the great Mithridates, though, in fact, he was only the son

of that prince's chief general.

a Gabinius, after having re-passed the Euphrates, and crossed Palestine, marched directly into Egypt. What was most to be feared in this war, was the way by which they must necessarily march to arrive at Pelusium; for they could not avoid passing plains, covered with sands of such a depth as was terrible to think on, and so dry, that there was not a single drop of water the whole length of the moore of Serbonis. Antony, who was sent before with the horse, not only seized the passes, but having taken Pelusium, the key of Egypt on that side, with the whole garrison, he made the way secure for the rest of the army, and gave his general great hopes of success in the expedition.

The enemy derived considerable advantage from the desire of glory which possessed Antony. For Ptolemy had no sooner entered Pelusium, than out of the violence of his hate and resentment, he would have put all the Egyptians in it to the sword. But Antony, who rightly judged that that act of cruelty would disgrace himself, opposed it, and prevented Ptolemy from executing his design. In all the battles and encounters which immediately followed one another, he not only gave proofs of his great valour, but distinguished him-

self by all the conduct of a great general.

. As soon as Gabinius received advice of Antony's good success, he entered the heart of Egypt. It was in winter, when the waters of the Nile are very low, and consequently the properest time for the conquest of it. Archelaus, who was brave, able, and experienced, did all that could be done in his defence, and disputed his ground very well with the enemy. After he quitted the city, in order to march against the Romans, when it was necessary to encamp and break ground for the entrenchments, the Egyptians, accustomed to live an idle and voluptuous life, raised an outcry, that Archelaus should employ the mercenaries in such work at the expense of the public. What could be expected from such troops in a battle? They were, in fact, soon put to the rout. Archelaus was killed fighting valiantly. Antony, who had been his particular friend and guest, having found his body upon the field of battle, adorned it in a royal manner, and solemnized his obsequies with great magnificence. By this action he left behind him a great name in Alexandria, and acquired, amongst the Romans who served with him in this war, the reputation of a man of singular valour and exceeding generosity.

Egypt was soon reduced, and obliged to receive Auletes.

who took entire possession of his dominions. In order to strengthen him in it, Gabinius left him some Roman troops for the guard of his person. Those troops contracted at Alexandria the manners and customs of the country, and gave into the luxury and effeminacy which reigned there more than in any other city. Auletes put his daughter Berenice to death, for having worn the crown during his exile; and afterwards got rid, in the same manner, of all the rich persons who had been of the adverse party. He had occasion for the confiscation of their estates, to make up the sum he had promised to Gabinius, to whose aid he was indebted for his re-establishment.

a The Egyptians suffered all these violences without murmuring. But, some days after, a Roman soldier having acsideatally killed a cat, neither the fear of Gabinius, nor the
authority of Ptolemy, could prevent the people from tearing
him to pieces upon the spot, to avenge the insult done to the
gods of the country; for cats were of that number.

A Nothing further is known with respect to the life of Ptokemy Auletes, except that C. Rabirius Posthumus, who had either lent him, or caused to be lent him, the greatest part of the sums he had borrowed at Rome, having gone to him, in order to procure payment when he was entirely reinstated, that prince gave him to understand that he despaired of satisfying him, unless he would consent to take upon him the care of his revenues, by which means he might reimburse himself by little and little with his own hands. The unfortunate creditor having accepted that offer out of fear of losing his debt if he refused it, the king soon found a pretence for causing him to be imprisoned, though one of the oldest and dearest of Casar's friends, and though Pompey was in some measure security for the debt, as the money was lent, and the obligations executed in his presence, and by his procurement, in a country house of his near Alba.

Rabirius thought himself too happy in being able to escape from prison and Egypt more miserable than he had gone thither. To complete his disgrace, he was prosecuted in form as soon as he returned to Rome, for having aided Ptolemy in corrupting the senate, by the sums he had lent him for that purpose; of having dishonoured his quality of Roman knight, by the employment he had accepted in Egypt; and lastly, of having shared in the money which Gabinius brought from thence, with whom, it was alleged, he had connived. Cicero's oration in his defence, which we still have, is an eternal monument of the ingratitude and perfidy

of this unworthy king.

a Ptolemy Auletes died in the peaceable possession of the kingdom of Egypt, about four years after his re-establishment. He left two sons and two daughters. He bequeathed his crown to the eldest son and daughter, and ordered by his will that they should marry together, according to the custom of that house, and govern jointly. And because they were both very young (for the daughter, who was the eldest, was only seventeen years of age) he left them under the tuition of the Roman senate. This was the famous Cleopatra, whose history it remains for us to relate. We find the people appointed Pompey the young king's guardian, who some years after so basely ordered him to be put to death.

SECT. II.

Cleopatra expelled the throne; but is afterwards, with her younger brother, re-established. Pompey assassinated.

c Little is known of the beginning of the reign of Cleopatra and her brother. That prince was a minor, under the tuition of Pothinus the eunuch, and of Achillas, the general of his army. Those two ministers, no doubt, to engross to themselves the whole administration of the public affairs, had deprived Cleopatra, in the king's name, of the share in the sovereignty left her by the will of Auletes. Injured in this manner, she went into Syria and Palestine to raise troops in those countries, in order to assert her rights by force of arms.

It was exactly at this conjuncture of the quarrel between the brother and sister, that Pompey, after having lost the battle of Pharsalia, fled to Egypt; conceiving, that he should find there an open and secure asylum in his misfortunes. He had been the protector of Auletes, the father of the reigning king, and it was solely to his influence that he was indebted for his re-establishment. He was in hopes of finding the son grateful, and of being powerfully assisted by him. When he arrived, Ptolemy was upon the coast with his army, between Pelusium and mount Casius, and Cleopatra at no great distance at the head of her troops also. Pompey on approaching the coast, sent to Ptolemy to demand permission to land and enter his kingdom.

The two ministers, Pothinus and Achillas, consulted with Theodotus, the rhetorician, the young king's preceptor, and with some others, what answer they should make: Pompey in the mean time waited the result of that council, and chose

a A. M. 3953. Ant. J. C. 51. Czsar, de Bello Civ. l. v. b Eutrop. l. vi. c A. M. 3956. Ant. J. C. 48. Plut. in Pomp. p. 659—663. Id. in Czs. p. 739, 731. Appian. de Bel, Civ. p. 480—484. Czs. de Bel. Civ. l. iii. Dz. d. l. l. p. 280—284.

rather to expose himself to be the foot-ball of three unworthy persons who governed the prince, than to owe his safety to Casar, who was his father-in-law, and the greatest of the Romans. This council differed in opinion; some were for receiving him, others for having him told to seek a retreat elsewhere. Theodotus approved neither of these methods, and displaying all his eloquence, undertook to demonstrate, that there was no other choice to be made, than that of ridding themselves of him. His reason was, because if they received him, Casar would never forgive the having assisted his enemy; if they sent him away without aid, and affairs should take a turn in his favour, he would not fail to revenge himself upon them for their refusal. That therefore there was no security for them, but in putting him to death, by which means they would gain Casar's friendship, and prevent the other from ever doing them any hurt; for, said he, according to the proverb, "Dead men do not bite."

This advice prevailed, as being in their opinion the wisest and most safe. Septimius, a Roman officer in the service of the king of Egypt, and some others, were charged with putting it into execution. They went to take Pompey on board a shallop, under the pretext that large vessels could not approach the shore without difficulty. The troops were drawn up on the sea-side, as with design to do honour to Pompey, with Ptolemy at their head. The perfidious Septimius tendered his hand to Pompey in the name of his master, and bade him come to a king, his friend, whom he ought to regard as his ward and son. Pompey then embraced his wife Cornelia, who was already in tears for his death; and, after having repeated these verses of Sophocles, " Every "man who enters the court of a tyrant becomes his slave, "though free before," he went into the shallop. When they saw themselves near the shore, they stabbed him before the king's eyes, cut off his head, and threw his body upon the strand, where it had no other funeral than what one of his freed-men gave it with the assistance of an old Roman, who was there by chance. They raised him a wretched funeral-pile, and covered him with some fragments of an old wreck, that had been driven ashore there.

Cornelia had seen Pompey massacred before her eyes. It is easier to imagine the condition of a woman in the height of grief from so tragical an object, than to describe it. Those who were in her galley, and in two other ships in company with it, made the coast resound with the cries they raised, and weighing anchor immediately, set sail before the wind, which blew fresh as soon as they got out to sea; this prevented the Egyptians, who were getting ready to chase them, from pursuing their design.

VOL. VIII.

Cæsar made all possible haste to arrive in Egypt, whither he suspected Pompey had retired, and where he was in hopes of finding him still alive. That he might be there the sooner, he carried very few troops with him; only eight hundred horse, and three thousand two hundred foot. He left the rest of his army in Greece and Asia Minor, under his lieutenant-generals, with orders to make all the advantages of his victory which it would admit, and to establish his authority in all those countries. As for his person, confiding in his reputation, and the success of his arms at Pharsalia, and reckoning all places secure for him, he made no scruple to land at Alexandria with the few people he had. He was very nigh paying dear for his temerity.

Upon his arrival he was informed of Pompey's death, and found the city in great confusion. Theodotus, believing he should do him an exceeding pleasure, presented him the head of that illustrious fugitive. He wept at seeing it, and turned away his eyes from a spestacle that gave him horror. He even caused it to be interred with all the usual solemnities. And the better to express his esteem for Pompey, and the respect he had for his memory, he received with great kindness, and loaded with favours, all who had adhered to him, and were then in Egypt; and wrote to his friends at Rome, that the highest and most grateful advantage of his victory was to find every day some new occasion to preserve the lives, and do services to some of those citizens,

who had borne arms against him.

The commotions increased every day at Alexandria, and abundance of murders were committed there; the city having neither law nor government, because without a master. Casar, clearly perceiving that the small number of troops with him were far from being sufficient to awe an insolent and seditious populace, gave orders for the legions he had in Asia to march thither. It was not in his power to leave Egypt, because of the Etesian winds, which in that country blow continually during the dog-days, and prevent all vessels from quitting Alexandria; as those winds are then always full north. Not to lose time, he demanded the payment of the money due to him from Auletes, and took cognizance of the dispute between Ptolemy and his sister Cleopatra.

We have seen, that when Cæsar was consul for the first time, Auletes had gained him by the promise of six thousand talents, and by that means had procured himself to be established upon the throne, and declared the friend and ally of the Romans. The king had paid him only a part of that

sum, and had given him a bill for the remainder.

a Casar configus fama rerum gestarum, infirmis auxiliis proficisci non dubité. Trat ; atque omnem sibi locam tutum fore existimales. Our,

Casar therefore demanded what was unpaid, which he wanted for the subsistence of his troops, and urged his claim with rigour. Pothinus, Ptolemy's first minister, employed various stratagems to make this rigour appear still greater than it really was. He plundered the temples of all the gold and silver which was found in them, and made the king, and all the great persons of the kingdom, eat out of earthen or wooden vessels; insinuating, underhand, that Casar had seized upon all their silver and gold plate, in order to render him odious to the populace by such reports, which were not destitute of probability in appearance, though entirely groundless

But what finally incensed the Egyptians against Casar, and made them at last take arms, was the haughtiness with which he acted as judge between Ptolemy and Cleopatra, in causing them to be cited to appear before him for the decision of their dispute. We shall soon see upon what he founded his authority for proceeding in that manner. He therefore decreed in form that they should disband their armies, should appear and plead their cause before him, and receive such sentence as he should pass between them. This order was looked upon in Egypt as a violation of the royal dignity, which being independent, acknowledged no superior, and could be judged by no tribunal. Casar replied to these complaints, that he acted only in virtue of being appointed arbiter by the will of Auletes, who had put his children under the tuition of the senate and people of Rome, the whole authority of which was then vested in his person, in quality of consul. That, as guardian, he had a right to arbitrate between them; and that all he pretended to was, as executor of the will, to establish peace between the brother and sister. This explanation having facilitated the affair, it was at length brought before Cæsar, and advocates were chosen to plead the cause.

But Cleopatra, who knew Cæsar's foible, believed that her presence would be more persuasive than any advocate she could employ with her judge. She caused him to be told, that she perceived, that those whom she employed in her behalf betrayed her, and demanded his permission to appear in person. Plutarch says it was Cæsar himself who pressed

her to come and plead her cause.

That princess took nobody with her, of all her friends, but Apollodorus the Sicilian, got into a little boat, and arrived at the bottom of the walls of the citadel of Alexandria, when it was quite dark at night. Finding that there were no means of entering without being known, she thought of this stratagem. She laid herself at length in the midst of a bundle of elothes. Apollodorus wrapped it up in a cloth, tied it up with a thong, and in that manner carried it through the gate of

the citadel to Czsar's apartment, who was far from being displeased with the stratagem. The first sight of so beautiful a person had all the effect upon him she had desired.

Casar sent the next day for Ptolemy, and pressed him to take her again, and be reconciled with her. Ptolemy saw plainly that his judge was become his adversary; and having learned that his sister was then in the palace, and even in Casar's own apartment, he quitted it in the utmost fury, and in the open street rent the diadem off his head, tore it to pieces, and threw it on the ground; crying out, with his face bathed in tears, that he was betrayed, and relating the circumstances to the multitude who assembled round him. In a moment the whole city was in an uproar. He put himself at the head of the populace, and led them on tu nultuously to charge Casar with all the fury natural on such occasions.

The Roman soldiers, whom Casar had with him, secured the person of Ptolemy. But as all the rest, who knew nothing of what was passing, were dispersed in the several quarters of that great city, Casar would inevitably have been overpowered, and torn to pieces by that furious populace, if he had not had the presence of mind to show himself to them from a part of the palace so high, that he had nothing to fear upon it; from hence he assured them, that they would be fully satisfied with the judgment he should pass.

Those promises appeased the Egyptians a little.

The next day he brought out Ptolemy and Cleopatra into an assembly of the people, summoned by his order. After having caused the will of the late king to be read, he decreed, as tutor and arbitrator, that Ptolemy and Cleopatra should reign jointly in Egypt, according to the intent of that will; and that Ptolemy the younger son, and Arsinoe the younger daughter, should reign in Cyprus. He added the last article to appease the people; for it was an absolute gift that he made them, as the Romans were actually in possession of that island. But he feared the effects of the Alexandrians' fury; and it was to extricate himself out of danger, that he made that concession.

a Every one was satisfied and charmed with this decree, except Pothinus. As it was he who had occasioned the breach between Cleopatra and her brother, and the expulsion of that princess from the throne, he had reason to apprehend, that the consequences of this accommodation would prove fatal to him. To prevent the effect of Cæsar's decree, he inspired the people with new subjects of jealousy and discontent. He gave out, that it was only through fear and by force that Cæsar had granted this decree, which would not jong subsist; and that his true design was to place Cleopatra

alone upon the throne. This was what the Egyptians exceedingly feared, not being able to endure that a woman should govern them alone, and have the sole authority. When he saw that the people came into his views, he made Achillas advance at the head of the army from Pelusium, in order to drive Cæsar out of Alexandria. The approach of that army put all things into their former confusion. Achillas, who had twenty thousand good troops, despised Cæsar's small number, and believed he should overpower him immediately. But Cæsar posted his men so well in the streets, and upon the avenues of the quarter in his possession, that he found no difficulty in supporting their attack.

When they saw they could not force him, they changed their measures, and marched towards the port, with design to make themselves masters of the fleet, to cut off his com munication with the sea, and to prevent him, in consequence, from receiving succours and convoys on that side. But Czsar again frustrated their design, by causing the Egyptian fleet to be set on fire, and by possessing himself of the tower of Pharos, which he garrisoned. By this means he preserved and secured his communication with the sea, without which he would have been ruined effectually. Some of the vessels on fire drove so near the quay, that the flames catched the neighbouring houses, from whence they spread throughout the whole quarter called Bruchion. It was at this time that the famous library was consumed, which had been the work of so many kings, and in which there were four hundred thousand volumes. What a loss was this to literature!

Cæsar seeing so dangerous a war upon his hands, sent into all the neighbouring countries for aid. He wrote, amongst others, to Domitius Calvinus, whom he had left to command in Asia Minor, and signified to him his danger. That general immediately detached two legions, the one by land, and the other by sea. That which went by sea arrived in time; the other that marched by land did not go thither at all. Before it had got there the war was at an end. But Cæsar was best served by Mithridates the Pergamenian, whom he sent into Syria and Cilicia. For he brought him the troops which extricated him out of the danger, as we shall see in the sequel.

Whilst he awaited the aid he had sent for, in order that he might not fight an army so superior in number till he thought fit, he caused the quarter in his possession to be fortified. He surrounded it with walls, and flanked it with towers and other works. Those lines included the palace, a theatre very near it, which he made use of as a citadel, and the way that

led to the port.

Ptolemy all this while was in Cæsar's hands; and Pothinus, his governor and first minister, who coincided with Achillas, gave him advice of all that passed, and encouraged him to push the siege with vigour. One of his letters was at last intercepted, and his treason being thereby discovered,

Casar ordered him to be put to death.

Ganymedes, another eunuch of the palace, who educated Arsinoe the youngest of the king's sisters, apprehending the same fate, because he had shared in that treason, carried off the young princess, and escaped into the camp of the Egyptians; who not having had, till then, any of the royal family at their head, were overjoyed at her presence, and proclaimed her queen. But Ganymedes, who entertained thoughts of supplanting Achillas, caused that general to be accused of having given up the fleet to Cæsar that had been set on fire by the Romans, caused him to be put to death, and the command of the army to be transferred to himself. He took also upon him the administration of all other affairs; and undoubtedly did not want capacity for the office of a prime minister, probity only excepted, which is often reckoned little or no qualification. For he had all the necessary penetration and activity, and contrived a thousand artful stratagems to distress Casar during the continuance of this war.

For instance, he found means to spoil all the fresh water in his quarter, and was very near destroying him by that means. For there was no other fresh water in Alexandria, than that of the Nile. "In every house were vaulted reservoirs, where it was kept. Every year, upon the great swell of the Nile, the water of that river came in by a canal, which had been cut for that purpose, and by a sluice made with that design was turned into the vaulted reservoirs, which were the cisterns of the city, where it grew clear by degrees. The masters of houses and their families drank of this water; but the poorer sort of people were forced to drink the running water, which was muddy and very unwholesome; for there were no springs in the city. Those caverus were made in such a manner, that they all had communication with each other. This provision of water made at one time served for the whole year. Every house had an opening like the mouth of a well, through which the water was taken up either in buckets or pitchers. Ganymedes caused all the communications with the caverns in the quarters of Casar to be stopped up; and then found means to turn the sea-water into the latter, and thereby spoiled all his fresh water. As soon as they perceived that the water was spoiled, Casar's soldiers made such a noise and raised such a tumult, that he would

a There are to this day exactly the same kind of caves at Alexandria, which are filled once a year, as at that time. Therene's Travels.

have been obliged to abandon his quarter, very much to his disadvantage, if he had not immediately thought of ordering wells to be sunk, where, at last, springs were found, which supplied them with water enough to make them amends for that which was spoiled.

After that, upon Cæsar's receiving advice, that the legion which Calvinus had sent by sea was arrived upon the coast of Lybia, which was not very distant, he advanced with his whole fleet to convoy it safely to Alexandria. Ganymedes was apprized of this, and immediately assembled all the Egyptian ships he could get, in order to attack him upon his return. A battle actually ensued between the two fleets. Cæsar had the advantage, and brought his legion without danger into the port of Alexandria; and had not the night come on, the ships of the enemy would not have escaped.

To repair that loss, Ganymedes drew together all the ships from the mouths of the Nile, and formed a new fleet, with which he entered the port of Alexandria. A second action was unavoidable. The Alexandrians climed in throngs to the tops of the houses next the port, to be spectators of the fight, and awaited the success with fear and trembling, lifting up their hands to heaven to implore the assistance of the gods. The all of the Romans was at stake, as they had no resource left if they lost this battle. Casar was again victorious. The Rhodians, by their valour and skill in naval af-

fairs, contributed exceedingly to this victory.

Cæsar, to make the best of it, endeavoured to seize the isle of Pharos, where he landed his troops after the battle, and to possess himself of the mole, called the Heptastadion, by which it was joined to the continent. But after having obtained several advantages, he was repulsed with the loss of more than eight hundred men, and was very near falling himself in his retreat. For the ship in which he had designed to get off, being ready to sink on account of the great number of people who had entered it with him, he threw himself into the sea, and with great difficulty swam to the next ship. Whilst he was thus swimming, he held one hand above the water, in which were papers of consequence, and swam with the other, so that they were not wetted.

The Alexandrians seeing that ill success itself only served to give Cæsar's troops new courage, entertained thoughts of making peace, or at least pretended such a disposition. They sent deputies to demand their king of him; assuring him, that his presence alone would put an end to all differences. Cæsar, who well knew their subtle and deceifful character, was not at a loss to comprehend their professions; but as he hazarded nothing in giving them up their king's person, and if they failed in their promises the fault were

be entirely on their side, he thought it incumbent on him to grant their demand. He exhorted the young prince to take advantage of this opportunity to inspire his subjects with sentiments of peace and equity; to redress the evils with which a war very imprudently undertaken had distressed his dominions; to approve himself worthy of the confidence he reposed in him, by giving him his liberty; and to show his gratitude for the services he had rendered his father. a Ptolemy, early instructed by his masters in the art of dissimulation and deceit, begged of Czsar, with tears in his eyes, not to deprive him of his presence, which was a much greater satisfaction to him, than to reign over others. The secuel soon explained how much sincerity there was in those tears and professions of amity. He was no sooner at the head of his troops, than he renewed hostilities with more vigour than ever. The Egyptians endeavoured, by the means of their fleet, to cut off Casar's provisions entirely. This occasioned a new fight at sea, near Canopus, in which Cæsar was again victorious. When this battle was fought, Mithridates of Pergamus was upon the point of arriving with the army, which he was bringing to the aid of Casar.

He had been sent into Syria and Cilicia to assemble all the troops he could, and to march them to Egypt. He acquitted himself of his commission with such diligence and prudence, that he had soon formed a considerable army. Antipater the Idumæan contributed very much towards it. He had not only joined him with three thousand Jews, but engaged several neighbouring princes of Arabia and Coelosyria, and the free cities of Phænicia and Syria also, to send him troops. Mithridates, with Antipater, who accompanied him in person, marched into Egypt, and upon arriving before Pelusium, they carried that place by storm. They were indebted principally to Antipater's bravery for the taking of this city. For he was the first that mounted the breach, and got upon the wall, and thereby opened the way for those

who followed him to carry the town. On their route from thence to Alexandria, it was necessary to pass through the country of Onion, of which the Jews, who inhabited it, had seized all the passes. The army was there put to a stand, and their whole design was upon the point of miscarrying, if Antipater, by his credit and that of Hyrcanus, from whom he brought them letters, had not engaged them to espouse Casar's party. Upon the spreading of that news, the Jews of Memphis did the same, and Mithridates received from both all the provisions his army had

e Regius animus disciplinis tellacissimis cruditus, ne a gentis sun morbus de generaret. Hens otare coutra Caratem copit, ne se demitteret; non enim reg-num ipsum sibi conspectu Caratre case jucundius. Hirt de Bell, Alex, b Joseph, Antiq. 1. ziv. c. 14, and 15.

occasion for. When they were near the Delta, Ptolemy detached a flying army to dispute the passage of the Nile with them. A battle was fought in consequence. Mithridates put himself at the head of part of his army, and gave the command of the other to Antipater. Mithridates's wing was soon broken, and obliged to give way; but Antipater, who had defeated the enemy on his side, came to his relief. The battle began afresh, and the enemy were defeated. Mithridates and Antipater pursued them, made a great slaughter, and regained the field of battle. They took even the enemy's camp, and obliged those who remained to repasse the Nile, in order to escape.

Ptolemy then advanced with his whole army, in order to overpower the victors. Casar also marched to support them; and as soon as he had joined them, came directly to a decisive battle, in which he obtained a complete victory. Ptolemy, in endeavouring to escape in a boat, was drowned in the Nile. Alexandria and all Egypt submitted to the

victor.

Cæsar returned to Alexandria about the middle of our January; and not finding any further opposition to his orders, gave the crown of Egypt to Cleopatra, in conjunction with Ptolemy, her other brother. This was in effect giving it to Cleopatra alone; for that young prince was only eleven years old. The passion which Cæsar had conceived for that princess was properly the sole cause of his embarking in sedangerous a war. He had by her one son, called Cæsario, whom Augustus caused to be put to death when he became master of Alexandria. His affection for Cleopatra kept him much longer in Egypt than his affairs required. For though every thing was settled in that kingdom by the end of January, he did not leave it till the end of April, according to Appian, who says he staid there nine months. Now he had arrived there only about the end of July the year before.

a Casar passed whole nights in feasting with Cleopatra. Having embarked with her upon the Nile, he carried her through the whole country with a numerous fleet, and would have penetrated into Ethiopia, if his army had not refused to follow him. He had resolved to bring her to Rome, and to marry her; and intended to have caused a law to pass in the assembly of the people, by which the citizens of Rome should be permitted to marry such and as many wives as they thought fit. Marius Cinna, the tribune of the people, declared, after his death, that he had prepared an harangue, in order to propose that law to the people, not being able to refuse his assistance upon the earnest solicitation of Casar.

He carried Arsinoe, whom he had taken in this war, to Rome, and she walked in his triumph in chains of gold; but immediately after that solemnity he set her at liberty. He did not permit her, however, to return into Egypt, lest her presence should occasion new troubles, and frustrate the regulations he had made in that kingdom. She chose the province of Asia for her residence, at least it was there that Antony found her after the battle of Philippi, and causad her to be put to death at the instigation of her sister Cleopatra.

Before he left Alexandria, Casar, in gratitude for the aid he had received from the Jews, caused all the privileges they enjoyed to be confirmed; and ordered a column to be erected, on which, by his command, all those privileges were en-

graven with the decree confirming them.

What at length made him quit Egypt, was the war with Pharnaces king of the Cimmerian Bosphorus, and son of Mithridates, the last king of Pontus. He fought a great battle with him near the city of b Zela, defeated his whole army, and drove him out of the kingdom of Pontus. To denote the rapidity of his conquest, in writing to one of his friends, he made use of only these three words, Vensi, vidit vici; that is to say, I came, I saw, I conquered.

SECT. III.

Cleopatra reigns alone. Death of Julius Casar. Tragical end of Antony and Cleopatra.

Cæsar, after the war of Alexandria, had re-established Cleopatra upon the throne, and for form only, had associated her brother with her, who at that time was only eleven years of age. During his minority, all power was in her hands. • When he attained his fifteenth year, which was the time when, according to the laws of the country, he was to govern for himself, and have a share in the royal authority, she poisoned him, and remained sole queen of Egypt.

In this interval Czsar had been killed at Rome by the conspirators, at the head of whom were Brutus and Cassius; and the triumvirate, between Antony, Lepidus, and Octavianus Czsar, had been formed, to avenge the death of Cz-

sar

d Cloopatra declared herself without hesitation for the triumvirs. She gave Albienus, the consul, Dolabella's lieutenant, four legions, which were the remains of Pompey's and Crassus's armies, and formed part of the troops which

a Plut in Cas. p. 731. b This was a city of Cappadocia.
c A M. 196: Ant J. C. 43. Joseph, Antig. l. xv. c. 4. Parphyr. p. 234.
M Annian. l ili. p. 576. l iv. p. 633. l v. p. 675.

Exsar had left with her for the defence of Egypt. She had also a fleet in readiness for sailing, but it was prevented by storms from setting out. • Cassius made himself master of those four legions, and frequently solicited Cleopatra for aid, which she resolutely refused. She sailed some time after with a numerous fleet, to join Antony and Octavianus. A violent storm occasioned the loss of a great number of her ships, and falling sick, she was obliged to return into Egypt.

Antony, after the defeat of Brutus and Cassius in the battle of Philippi, having passed over into Asia, in order to establish the authority of the triumvirate there, the kings, princes, and ambassadors of the East, came thither in throngs to make their court to him. He was informed that the governors of Phœnicia, which was dependent upon the kingdom of Egypt, had sent Cassius aid against Dolabella. He cited Cleopatra before him, to answer for the conduct of her governors: and sent one of his lieutenants to oblige her to come to him in Cilicia, whither he was going to assemble the states of that province. That step became very fatal to Antony in its consequences, and completed his ruin. His love for Cleopatra having awakened passions in him, till then concealed or asleep, inflamed them even to madness, and finally deadened and extinguished the few sparks of honour and virtue which he might perhaps still retain.

Cleopatra, assured of her charms by the proof she had already so successfully made of them upon Julius Cæsar, was in hopes that she could also very easily captivate Antony; and the more, because the former had known her only when she was very young, and had no experience of the world; whereas she was going to appear before Antony, at an age wherein women, with the bloom of their beauty, unite the whole force of wit and address to manage and conduct the greatest affairs. Cleopatra was at that time five-and-twenty years old. She provided herself therefore with exceeding rich presents, great sums of money, and especially with most magnificent habits and ornaments; and with still higher hopes in her attractions and the graces of her person, more powerful than dress, or even gold, she began her voyage.

Upon her way she received several letters from Antony, who was at Tarsus, and from his friends, pressing her to hasten her journey; but she only laughed at their eagerness, and used never the more diligence for them. Having crossed the sea of Pamphylia, she entered the Cydnus, and going up that river, landed at Tarsus. Never was equipage more splendid and magnificent than her's. The stern of her ship

a A. M. 3962. Ant. J. C. 42. bd. M. 3963. Ant. J. C. 41. Plut in Anton. p. 926—939. Died. l. xlviii. p. 371. Applan, de Bell. Civ. l. v. p. 671.

samed with gold, the sails were purple, and the oars inlaid with silver. A pavilion of cloth of gold was raised upon the deck, under which appeared the queen, robed like Venus, and surrounded with the most beautiful virgins of her court, of whom some represented the Nereides, and others the Graces. Instead of trumpets, were heard flutes, hautboys, harps, and other such instruments of music, warbling the softest airs, to which the oars kept time, and rendered the harmony more agreeable. Perfumes were burning on the deck, which spread their odours to a great distance upon the river, and on each side of its banks, that were covered with an infinitude of people, whom the novelty of the spectacle had drawn thither.

As soon as her arrival was known, the whole people of Tarsus went out to meet her; so that Antony, who at that time was giving audience, saw his tribunal abandoned by every one, and not a single person with him, but his lictors and domestics. A rumour was spread, that it was the goddess Venus, who came in masquerade to make Bacchus a

visit for the good of Asia.

She was no sooner landed, than Antony sent to compliment and invite her to supper. But she answered his deputies, that she should be very glad to regale him herself, and that she would expect him in the tents she had caused to be got ready upon the banks of the river. He made no difficulty to go thither, and found the preparations of a magnificence not to be expressed. He admired particularly the beauty of the lights, which had been disposed with abundance of art, and whose brilliancy was such, that they made mid-

night seem bright day.

Antony invited her, in his turn, for the next day. But in spite of his utmost endeavours to exceed her in this entertainment, he confessed himself overcome, as well in the splendour as disposition of the feast, and was the first to rally the parsimony and plainness of his own, in comparison with the sumptuousness and elegance of Cleopatra's. The queen, finding nothing but what was gross in the pleasantries of Antony, and more expressive of the soldier than the courtier, repaid him in his own coin; but with so much wit and grace, that he was not in the least offended at it. For the beauties and charms of her conversation, attended with all possible sweetness and gaiety, had attractions in them still more irresistible than her form and features, and left upon his mind and heart an indelible impression. She charmed whenever she but spoke, such music and harmony were in her utterance, and the very sound of her voice.

Little or no mention was made of the complaints against Gleopatra, which were, besides, without foundation. She

struck Antony so violently with her charms, and gained so absolute an ascendant over him, that he could refuse her nothing. It was at this time that at her entreaty he caused Arsinoe her sister to be put to death, who had taken refuge in the temple of Diana at Miletus, as in a secure asylum.

a Great feasts were made every day. Some new banquet still out-did that which preceded it, and she seemed to study to excel herself. Antony, at a feast to which she had invited him, was astonished at seeing the riches displayed on all sides, and especially at the great number of gold cups enriched with jewels, and wrought by the most excellent workmen. She told him, with a disdamful air, that those were but trifles, and made him a present of them. The next day the banquet was still more superb. Antony, according to custom, had brought a good number of guests along with him, all officers of rank and distinction. She gave them all the vessels and plate of gold and silver used at the entertainment.

b Without doubt, in one of these feasts happened what Pliny, and, after him, Macrobius, relate. Cleopatra jested according to custom upon Antony's entertainment, as very niggardly and inelegant. Piqued with the raillery, he asked her with some warmth, what she thought, would add to its magnificence? Cleopatra answered coldly, that she could expend c more than a million of livres upon one supper. He affirmed, that she was merely bragging, that it was impossible, and that she could never make it appear. A wager was laid, and Plancus was to decide it. The next day they came to the banquet. The service was magnificent, but had nothing so very extraordinary in it. Antony calculated the expense, demanded of the queen the price of the several dishes, and with an air of raillery, as secure of victory, told her that they were still far from a million. Stay, said the queen, this is only a beginning. I shall try whether I cannot spend a million only upon myself. A second d table was brought, and, according to the order she had before given, nothing was set on it but a single cup of vinegar. Antony surprised at such a preparation, could not imagine for what it was intended. Cleopatra had at her ears two pearls, the finest that ever were seen, each of which was valued at above fifty thousand pounds. One of these pearls she took off, threw it into e the vinegar, and after having dissolved it, swallowed

a Athen. l. iv. p. 147, 148

b Plin l. ix c. 56. Magrob. Satur. 1 ii. c. 13. c Centies H S Hoc est, centies centena millies sestertium. Which amount

ed to more than a million of livres. or 52,50°l. sterling d The ancients changed their tables at every course

e Vinegar is strong enough to dissolve the hardest things. A cet succus domiter rearm, as Pliny says el it, L xxxiii. e. 3. Cleopatra had not the glory of the VOI. VIII.

it. She was preparing to do as much by the other ; Plancus stopped her, and deciding the wager in her favour declared Antony overcome. Plancus was much in the wrong to envy the queen the singular and peculiar glory of having

swallowed two millions in two draughts.

b Antony was embroiled with Cæsar. Whilst his wife Fulvia was very active at Rome in supporting his interests, and the army of the Parthians was upon the point of entering Syria, as if those things did not concern him, he suffered himself to be drawn away by Cleopatra to Alexandria, where they passed their time in games, amusements, and voluptuousness, treating each other every day at excessive and incredible expenses; which may be judged of from the following circumstance.

A young Greek, who went to Alexandria to study physic, upon the great noise those feasts made, had the curiosity to assure himself with his own eyes about them. Having been admitted into Antony's kitchen, he saw amongst other things eight wild boars roasting whole at the same time. Upon which he expressed surprise at the great number of guests that he supposed were to be at the supper. One of the officers could not forbear laughing, and told him, that they were not so many as he imagined, and that there would not be above ten in all; but that it was necessary every thing should be served in a degree of perfection, which every moment ceases and spoils. "For (added he) it often happens that Antony will order his supper, and a moment after forbid it to be served, having entered into some conversation that diverts him. For that reason not one but many suppers are provided, because it is hard to know at what time he will think fit to have it set on table."

Cleopatra, lest Antony should escape her, never lost sight of him, nor quitted him day or night, but was always employed in diverting and retaining him in her chains. She played with him at dice, hunted with him, and when he exercised his troops, was always present, Her sole attention was to amuse him agreeably, and not to leave him time to

conceive the least disgust.

invention. Before her, to the disgrace of royalty, the son of a commedian (Clodius the son of Esopus) had done something of the same kind, and often swallowed pearls dissolved in that manner, from the sole pleasure of making the expense of making the expense of making the expense of the sole pleasure of making the expense of the sole pleasure of the sole pleasure

Filius Æsopi detractam ex aure Metellæ, Seiheet ut decies solidum exsorberet. aceto Diluit insignem baccam

Mor 1. ii. Sat 6.

a This other pearl was afterwards consecrated to Venus by Augustus, who carried it to Rome on his return from Alexandria; and having caused it to be cut in two, its size was so extraordinary, that it served fur presdants in the ears of that goddess. Plin, ibid.

c Plut. in Anton. p. 918.

One day, when he was fishing with an angle, and catched nothing, he was very much vexed on that account, because the queen was of the party, and he was unwilling to seem to want skill or good fortune in her presence. It therefore came into his thoughts to order fishermen to dive secretly under water, and to fasten to his hook some of their large fishes, which they had taken before. That order was executed immediately, and Antony drew up his line several times with great hish at the end of it. This artifice did not escape the air Egyptian. She affected great admiration and surprise at Antony's good fortune; but told her friends privately what had passed, and invited them to come the next day and be spectators of a like pleasantry. They did not fail. When they were all got into the fishing boats, and Antony had thrown his line, she commanded one of her people to dive immediately into the water, to prevent Antony's divers, and to make fast a large salt fish, one of those that came from the kingdom of Pontus, to his hook. When Antony perceived his line had its load, he drew it.up. It is easy to imagine what bursts of laughter arose at the sight of that salt fish; and Cleopatra said to him, "Leave the line, good general, to us, "the kings and queens of Pharos and Canopus: your busi-"ness is to fish for cities, kingdoms, and kings."

Whilst Antony amused himself in these puerile sports and triling diversions, the news he received of Labienus's conquests, at the head of the Parthian army, awakened him from his lethargy, and obliged him to march against them. But having received advice, upon his route, of Fulvia's death, he returned to Rome, where he reconciled himself to young Casar, whose sister Octavia he married, a women of extraordinary merit, who was lately become a widow by the death of Marcellus. It was believed this marriage would make him forget Cleopatra. But having begun his march against the Parthians, his passion for the Egyptian, which had something of enchantment in it, rekindled with more violence than

ever.

This queen, in the midst of the most violent passions and the intoxication of pleasures, still retained a taste for polite learning and the sciences. In the place where stood the famous library of Alexandria, which had been burnt some years before, as we have observed, she erected a new one to the augmentation of which Antony very much contributed, by presenting her with the libraries of Pergamus, in which were above two hundred thousand volumes. She did not collect books merely for ornament, she made use of them. There were few barbarous nations to whom she spoke by an inter-

a A M. 3965. Ant J C 39. b A. M. 3966. Ant. J. C. 38. Epiphan-dc mens. et pond.

preter; she answered most of them in their own language; the Ethiopians, Troglodytæ, Hebrews, Arabians, Syrians, Medes, Parthians. She knew besides several other languages; whereas the kings who had reigned before her in Egypt had scarcely been able to learn the Egyptian, and some of them had even forgotten the Macedonian, their natural tongue.

Cleopatra, pretending herself to be the lawful wife of Antony, saw him marry Octavia with great emotion, whom she looked upon as her rival. Antony, to appease her, was obliged to make her magnificent presents. He gave her Phænicia, the Lower Syria, the isle of Cyprus, with a great part of Cilicia. To these he added part of Judæa and Arabia. These great presents, which considerably abridged the extent of the empire, very much afflicted the Romans, and they were no less offended at the excessive honours which he paid this foreign princess.

Two years passed, during which Antony made several voyages to Rome, and undertook some expeditions against the Parthians and Armenians, in which he acquired no great

honour,

b It was in one of these expeditions that the temple of Anaitis was plundered, a goddess much celebrated amongst a certain people of Armenia. Her statue of massy gold was broken in pieces by the soldiers, with which several of them were considerably enriched. One of them, a veteran, who afterwards settled at Bologna, in Italy, had the good fortune to receive Augustus in his house, and to entertain him at supper. "Is it true," said that prince during the repast, talking of this story, "that the man who made the first stroke " at the statue of this goddess, was immediately deprived of " sight, lost the use of his limbs, and expired the same "hour?"-" If it were," replied the veteran with a smile, " I should not now have the honour of seeing Augustus be-" neath my roof, being myself the rash person who made "the first attack upon her, which has been of great service "to me. For, if I have any thing, I am entirely indebted for it to the good goddess; upon one of whose legs, my lord, you are now supping."

c Antony, believing he had made every thing secure in those countries, led back his troops. From his impatience to rejoin Cleopatra, he hastened his march so much, notwithstanding the rigour of the season and the continual snows, that he lost eight thousand men upon his route, and marched into Phenicia with very few followers. He rested there in expectation of Cleopatra; and as she was slow in coming he fell into anxiety, grief, and langour, that visibly preved

a Plut in Anton. p. 937.

b Plin 1. xxxiii. c. 23.

A. M. 3989. Ant. J. G. 35. Plut. in Anton. p. 939—943.

upon him. She arrived at length with clothes and great

sums of money for his troops.

Octavia, at the same time, had quitted Rome to join him, and was already arrived at Athens. 'Cleopatra rightly perceived that she came to dispute Antony's heart with her. She was afraid, that with her virtue, wisdom, and gravity of her manners, if she had time to make use of her modest but lively and insinuating attractions, to win her husband, that she would gain an absolute power over him. To avoid which danger, she affected to die for love of Antony; and, with that view, made herself lean and wan, by taking very little nourishment. Whenever he entered her apartment, she looked upon him with an air of surprise and amazement: and when he left her, seemed to languish with sorrow and dejection. She often contrived to appear bathed in tears, and at the same moment endeavoured to dry and conceal them, at if to hide from him her weakness and disorder. Antony, who feared nothing so much as occasioning the least uneasiness to Cleopatra, wrote letters to Octavia, to order her to stay for him at Athens and to come no further, because he was upon the point of undertaking some new expedition. And ir. fact, at the request of the king of the Medes, who promised him powerful succours, he was making preparations to renew the war against the Parthians.

That virtuous Roman lady, dissembling the wrong he did her, sent to him to know where it would be agreeable to him to have the presents carried which she had designed for him, since he did not think fit to let her deliver them in person. Antony received this second compliment no better than the first; and Cleopatra, who had prevented his seeing Octavia, would not permit him to receive any thing from her. Octavia was obliged therefore to return to Rome, without having produced any other effect by her voyage than that of making Antony more inexcusable. This was what Casar desired, in order to have a just reason for breaking entirely with

him

When Octavia came to Rome, Czsar, professing an high resentment of the affront she had received, ordered her to quit Antony's house, and to go to her own. She answered that she would not leave her husband's house; and that if he had no other reasons for a war with Antony than what related to her, she conjured him to renounce her interests. She accordingly always continued there, as if he had been present, and educated with great care and magnificence, not only the children he had by her, but also those whom he had had by Fulvia. What a contrast is here between Octavia and Cleopatra! In the midst of rebuffs and affronts, how worthy does the one seem of esteem and respect, and

the other, with all her grandeur and magnificence, of con-

tempt and abhorrence.

Cleopatra omitted no kind of arts to retain Antony in her chains. Tears, caresses, reproaches, menaces, all were employed. By dint of presents she had gained all who approached him, and in whom he placed most confidence. Those flatterers represented to him in the strongest terms, that it would be absolutely cruel and inhuman to abandon Cleopatra in the mournful condition she then was; and that it would be the death of that unfortunate princess, who loved and lived for him alone. They softened and melted the heart of Antony so effectually, that for fear of occasioning Cleopatra's death, he returned immediately to Alexandria, and put off the Medes to the following spring

a It was with great difficulty then that he resolved to leave Egypt, and remove himself from his dear Cleopatra. She agreed to attend him as far as the banks of the Euphrates.

b After having made himself master of Armenia, as much by treachery as force of arms, he returned to Alexandria, which he entered in triumph, dragging at his chariot-wheels the king of Armenia, laden with chains of gold, and presented him in that condition to Cleopatra, who was pleased to see a captive king at her feet. He unbent his mind at leisure after his great fatigues in feasts and parties of pleasure, in which Cleopatra and himself passed days and nights. That vain e Egyptian woman, at one of these banquets, seeing Antony full of wine, presumed to ask him to give her the Roman empire, which he was not ashamed to promise

Before he set out on a new expedition, Antony, to bind the queen to him by new obligations, and to give her new proofs of his being entirely devoted to her, resolved to solemnize the coronation of her and her children. A throne of massy gold was erected for that purpose in the palace, the ascent to which was by several steps of silver. Antony was seated upon this throne, dressed in a purple robe embroidered with gold, and with diamond buttons. On his side he wore a scymetar, after the Persian mode, the hilt and scabbard of which were loaded with precious stones: he had a diadem on his brows, and a sceptre of gold in his hand; in order, as he said, that in that equipage he might deserve to be the husband of a queen. Cleopatra sat on his right hand in a shining robe, made of the precious linen which was appropriated to the use of the goddess Isis, whose name and habit she had the vanity to assume. Upon the same throne,

⁶ A. M. 3970. Ant J. C. 34.

6 A. M. 3971. Ant. J. C. 33.

6 Hee mulier Ægyptia ab ebrio imperatore, pretium libidinum, Romanum imperium petiit: et promisit Antenius. Fler, l. iv. c. ii.

but a little lower, sat Casario, the son of Julius Casar and Cleopatra, and the two other children, Alexander and Pto-

lemy, whom she had by Antony.

Every one having taken the place assigned them, the heraids, by the command of Antony, and in the presence of all the people to whom the gates of the palace had been thrown open, proclaimed Cleopatra queen of Egypt, Cyprus, Libya, and Cœlosyria, in conjunction with her son Cæsario. They afterwards proclaimed the other princes kings of kings, and declared, that till they should possess a more ample inheritance, Antony gave Alexander, the eldest, the kingdoms of Armenia and Media, with that of Parthia, when he should have conquered it; and to the youngest, Ptolemy, the kingdoms of Syria, Phonicia, and Cilicia. Those two young princes were dressed after the mode of the several countries over which they were to reign. After the proclamation, the three princes, rising from their seats, approached the throne, and putting one knee to the ground, kissed the hands of Antony and Cleopatra. They had soon after a train assigned them, proportioned to their new dignity, and each his regiment of guards, drawn out of the principal families of his dominions.

Anteny repaired early into Armenia, in order to act against the Parthians, and had already advanced as far as the banks of the Araxes: but the news of what passed at Rome against him prevented his going on, and induced him to abandon the Parthian expedition. He immediately detached Canidius with sixteen legions to the coast of the Ionian sea, and joined them himself soon after at Ephesus, where he might be ready to act in case of an open rupture between Casar and

him; which there was great reason to expect.

Cleopatra was of the party; and that occasioned Antony's ruin. His friends advised him to send her back to Alexandria, till the event of the war should be known. But that queen apprehending, that by Octavia's mediation he might come to an accommodation with Cæsar, gained Canidius, by dint of money, to speak in her favour to Antony, and to represent to him, that it was neither just to remove a princess from this war, who contributed so much towards it on her side, nor useful to himself; because her departure would discourage the Egyptians, of whom the greatest part of his maritime forces consisted. Besides, continued those who talked in this manner, it did not appear that Cleopatra was inferior, either in prudence or capacity, to any of the princes or kings in his army; she who had governed so great a kingdom so long, and who might have learnt, in her intercourse with Antony, how to conduct the most important and difficult affairs with wisdom and address. Antony

not oppose these remonstrances, which flattered at once his

passion and vanity.

From Ephesus he repaired with Cleopatra to Samos, where the greatest part of their troops had their rendezvous, 'and where they passed their time in feasting and pleasure. The kings in their train exhausted themselves in making their court by extraordinary expenses, and displayed excessive

luxury in their entertainments.

a It was probably in one of these feasts that the circumstance happened which is related by Pliny. Whatever passion Cleopatra professed for Antony, as he perfectly knew her character for dissimulation, and that she was capable of the blackest crimes, he apprehended, I know not upon what foundation, that she might have thoughts of poisoning him, for which reason he never touched any dish at their banquet till it had been tasted. It was impossible that the queen should not perceive so manifest a distrust. She employed a very extraordinary method to make him sensible how ill founded his fears were; and if she had so bad an intention, how ineffectual all the precautions he took would be. caused the extremities of the flowers to be poisoned, of which the wreaths, worn by Antony and herself at table, according to the customs of the ancients, were composed. When their heads began to grow warm with wine, in the height of their gaiety, Cleopatra proposed to Antony to drink off those flowers. He made no difficulty; and after having plucked off the end of his wreath with his fingers, and thrown them into his cup filled with wine, he was upon the point of drinking it, when the queen, taking hold of his arms, said to him-"I am the poisoner against whom you take such " mighty precaution. If it were possible for me to live with-"out you, judge now whether I wanted either the opportuni-"ty or reason for such an action." Having ordered a prisoner, condemned to die, to be brought thither, she made him drink that liquor, upon which he died immediately.

The court went from Samos to Athens, where they passed many days in the same excesses. Cleopatra spared no pains to obtain the same marks of affection and esteem as Octavia had received during her residence in that city. But whatever she could do, she could extort from them only forced civilities, which terminated in a trifling deputation, which Antony obliged the citizens to send to her, and at the head of which he himself would be in quality of a citizen of

Athens.

^b The new consuls, Caius Sosius and Domitius Ænobarbus, having declared openly for Antony, quitted Rome and re-

a Plin. l. xm. e 3.

A. M. 3972. Ant. J. C. 32. Plut. in Anton. p. 942-955.

paired to him. Casar, instead of seizing them, or causing them to be pursued, ordered it to be given out, that they went to him by his permission; and declared publicly, that all persons who were so disposed, had his consent to retire whither they thought fit. By that means he remained master at Rome, and was in a condition to decree and act whatever he thought proper for his own interests, or contrary to those of Antony.

When Antony was apprized of this, he assembled all the heads of his party; and the result of their deliberations was, that he should declare war against Czsar, and repudiate Octavia. He did both. Antony's preparations for the war were so far advanced, that if he had attacked Czsar vigorously without loss of time, the advantage must inevitably have been wholly on his side; for his adversary was not then in a condition to make head against him, either by sea or land. But voluptuousness prevailed, and the operations were put off to the next year. This was his ruin. Czsar,

by his delay, had time to assemble all his forces.

The deputies sent by Antony to Rome to declare his divorce from Octavia had orders to command her to quit his house, with all her children, and, in case of refusal, to turn her out by force, and to leave nobody in it but the son of Antony by Fulvia; an indignity the more sensible to Octavia, as a rival was the cause of it. However, stifling her resentment, she answered the deputies only with her tears; and unjust as his orders were, she obcyed them, and removed with her children. She even laboured to appease the people, whom so unworthy an action had incensed against him, and did her utmost to mollify the rage of Cæsar. She represented to them, that it was inconsistent with the wisdom and dignity of the Roman people to enter into such petty differences; that it was only a quarrel between women, which did not merit that they should resent it; and that she should be very wretched if she were the occasion of a new war; she who had consented to her marriage with Antony, solely from the hope that it would prove the pledge of an umon between him and Cæsar. Her remonstrances had a different effect from her intentions, and the people, charmed with her virtue, had still more compassion for her misfortune, and detestation for Antony, than before.

But nothing enraged them to such a neight as Antony's will, which he had deposited in the hands of the vestal virgins. This mystery was revealed by a two persons of consular dignity, who, incapable of suffering the pride of Cleopatra and the abandoned voluptuousness of Antony, had retired to Casar. As they had been witnesses of this will,

and knew the secret, they declared it to Cæsar. The vestals made great difficulty to give up an instrument confided to their care; alleging in their excuse the faith of trusts, which they were obliged to observe; and were determined to be forced to it by the authority of the people. The will accordingly being brought into the Forum, these three articles were read in it: I. That Antony acknowledged Cæsario, as lawful son of Julius Cæsar. II. That he appointed his sons by Cleopatra to be his heirs, with the title of kings of kings. III. That he decreed, in case he should die at Rome, that his body, after having been carried in pomp through the city, should be laid the same evening on a bed of state, in order to its being sent to Cleopatra, to whom he left the care of his funeral and interment.

There are some authors, however, who believe this will to be a forgery contrived by Cæsar to render Antony more odious to the people. And indeed what appearance wasthere, that Antony, who well knew to what a degree the Roman people were jealous of their rights and customs, should confide to them the execution of a testament, which

violated them with so much contempt.

When Cæsar had an army and fleet ready, which seemed strong enough to make head against his enemy, he also declared war on his side. But in the decree granted by the people to that purpose, he caused it to be expressed, that it was against Cleopatra; it was from a refinement of policy, that he acted in that manner, and did not insert Antony's name in the declaration of war, though actually intended against him. For, besides throwing the blame upon Antony, by making him the aggressor in a war against his country, he did not hurt the feelings of those who were still attached to him, whose number and credit might have proved formidable, and whom he would have been under the necessity of declaring enemies to the commonwealth, if Antony had been expressly named in the decree.

Antony returned from Athens to Samos, where the whole fleet was assembled. It consisted of five hundred ships of war of extraordinary size and structure, having several decks one above another, with towers upon the head and stern of a prodigious height; so that those superb vessels upon the sea might have been taken for floating islands. Such great crews were necessary for completely manning those heavy machines, that Antony, not being able to find mariners enough, had been obliged to take husbandmen, artificers, muleteers, and all sorts of people void of experience, and fitter to give

trouble than do real service.

On board this fleet were two hundred thousand foot and twelve thousand horse. The kings of Lybia, Cappadocia, Paphlagonia, Comagena, and Thrace, were there in person; and those of Pontus, Judza, Lycaonia, Galatia, and Media, had sent their troops. A more splendid and pompous sight could not be seen than this fleet when it put to sea, and had unfurled its sails. But nothing equalled the magnificence of Cleopatra's galley, all flaming with gold; its sails of purple; its flags and streamers floating in the wind, whilst trumpets, and other instruments of war, made the heavens resound with airs of joy and triumph. Antony followed her close in a galley equally splendid. That queen a, intoxicated with her fortune and grandeur, and hearkening only to her unbridled ambition, foolishy threatened the Capitol with approaching ruin, and prepared with her infamous troop of eunuchs utterly to subvert the Roman empire.

On the other side, less pomp and splendour was seen, but more utility. Casar had only two hundred and fifty ships, and fourscore thousand foot, with as many horse as Antony. But all his troops were chosen men, and on board his fleet were none but experienced seamen. His vessels were not so large as Antony's, but then they were much lighter and fit-

ter for service.

Cæsar's rendezvous was at Brundusium, and Antony advanced to Corcyra. But the season of the year was over, and bad weather came on; so that they were both obliged to retire, and to put their troops into winter quarters, and their fleets into good ports, till the approach of spring.

& Antony and Cæsar, as soon as the season would admit, took the field both by sea and land. The two fleets entered the Ambracian gulph in Epirus. Antony's bravest and most experienced officers advised him not to hazard a battle by sea, to send back Cleopatra into Egypt, and to make all possible haste into Thrace or Macedonia, in order to fight there by land; because his army, composed of good troops, and much superior in numbers to Cæsar's, seemed to promise him the victory; whereas, a fleet so ill manned as his, how

a — Dum Capitolio
Regina dementes ruinas,
Funos et imperio parabat,
Contaminato cum grege turpium
Morbo virerum ; quidibet impotems
Sperare fortanaque dulci
Ebria

Hor. Od. xxxvii. l. 1.

Whilst drunk with fortune's heady wine,
Fill'd with was hope though impotent in arms,
The haughty queen conceives the wild design,
So much her vain ambition charms!
With her polluted band or supple slaves,
Her silken cunnets and her Phariam knaves,
The Capitol in dust to level low.
And give Rome's empire, and the world, a last and fatal blow!

6 A. M. 5973. Ant. J. C. 31.

numerous soever it might be, was by no means to be relied on. But it was long since Antony had been not susceptible of good advice, and had acted only to please Cleopatra. That proud princess, who judged of things solely from appearances, believed her fleet invincible, and that Cæsar's ships could not approach it without being dashed to pieces. Besides, she rightly perceived that in case of misfortune it would be easier for her to escape in her ships than by land. Her opinion, therefore, took place against the advice of all

the generals. "The battle was fought upon the second of September, at the mouth of the Gulph of Ambracia, near the city of Actium, in sight of both the land-armies; the one of which was drawn up in battle upon the north, and the other upon the south of that strait, expecting the event. The contest was doubtful for some time, and seemed as much in favour of Antony as Casar, till the retreat of Cleopatra. That queen frightened with the noise of the battle, in which every thing was terrible to a woman, took to flight when she was in no danger, and drew after her the whole Egyptian squadron, which consisted of sixty ships of the line; with which she sailed for the coast of Peloponnesus. Antony who saw her fly, forgetting every thing, forgetting even himself, followed her precipitately, and yielded a victory to Casar, which till then, he had exceedingly well disputed. It however, cost the victor extremely dear. For Antony's ships fought so well after his departure, that, though the battle began before noon, it was not over when night came on; so that Casar's troops were obliged to pass it on board their ships.

The next day Cæsar, seeing his victory complete, detached a squadron in pursuit of Antony and Cleopatra. But the squadron despairing of ever coming up with them, because so far before it, soon returned to join the main botty of the fleet. Antony having entered the admiral-galley, in which Cleopatra was, went and sat down at the head of it; where, leaning his elbows on his knees, and supporting his head with his two hands, he remained like a man overwhelmed with shame and rage; reflecting, with profound melancholy, upon his ill conduct, and the misfortunes it had brought upon him. He kept in that posture, and in those thoughts, during the three days they were going to b Tænarus, without seeing or speaking to Cleopatra. At the end of that time, they saw each other again, and lived together as usual

The land-army still remained entire, and consisted of eighteen legions, and two and twenty thousand horse under the command of Canidius, Antony's lieutenant-general, and

a The 4th before the names of September.

b Prementery of Lacoria.

might have made head against Czsar and given him abundance of difficulty. But seeing themselves abandoned by their generals, they surrendered to Czsar, who received

them with open arms.

From Tzenarus Cleopatra took the route of Alexandria, and Antony that of Libya, where he had left a considerable army, to guard the frontiers of that country. Upon his landing he was informed, that Scarpus, who commanded this army, had declared for Czsar. He was so struck with this news, which he had no reason to expect, that he would have killed himself, and was with difficulty prevented from it by his friends. He therefore had no other choice to make than to follow Cleopatra to Alexandria, where she was arrived.

When she approached that port, she was afraid, if her misfortunes should be known, that she should be refused entrance. She therefore caused her ships to be crowned, as if she was returned victorious; and no sooner landed, than she caused all the great lords of her kingdom, whom she suspected, to be put to death, lest they should excite seditions against her, when they were informed of her defeat. Antony found her in the midst of these bloody executions.

a Soon after, she formed another very extraordinary design. To avoid falling into Cæsar's hands, who, she foresaw, would follow her into Egypt, she designed to have her ships in the Mediterranean carried into the Red Sea, over the Isthmus between them, which is no more than thirty leagues broad; and afterwards to put all her treasures on board those ships and others which she already had in that sea; but the Arabians, who inhabited the coast, having burnt all the ships she had there, she was obliged to abandon her design

Changing, therefore, her resolution, she thought only of gaining Cæsar, whom she looked upon as her conqueror, and to make him a sacrifice of Antony, whose misfortunes had rendered him indifferent to her. Such was this princess's disposition. Though she loved even to madness, she had still more ambition than love, and the crown being dearer to her than her husband, she entertained thoughts of preserving it at the price of Antony's life. But concealing her sentiments from him, she persuaded him to send ambassadors to Cæsar, to negotiate a treaty of peace with him. She joined her ambassadors with his; but gave them instructions to treat separately for herself. Cæsar would not so much as see Antony's ambassadors. He dismissed Cleopatra's with a favourable answer. He passionately desired to make sure of her person and treasures; her person to adorn his tri-

umph; her treasures to enable him to discharge the deb he had contracted upon account of this war. He therefor gave her reason to conceive great hopes, in case she woul

sacrifice Antony to him.

The latter, after his return from Libya, had retired into country-house, which he had caused to be built expressl on the banks of the Nile, in order to enjoy the conversatio of two of his friends, who had followed him thither. In hi retirement it might have been expected, that he would hea with pleasure the wise discourses of those two philosopher. But as they could not banish from his heart his love for Cleo patra, the sole cause of all his misfortunes, that passion which they had only suspended, soon resumed its former empire. He returned to Alexandria, abandoned himself again to the charms and caresses of Cleopatra, and, with design to pleas her, sent deputies again to Casar to demand life of him upon the shameful conditions of passing it at Athens as a private person; provided Casar would assure Egypt to Cleopatra and her children.

This second deputation not having met with a more favourable reception than the former, Antony endeavoured to extinguish in himself the sense of his present misfortunes, and the apprehension of those that threatened him, by abandoning himself immoderately to feasting and voluptuousness. Cleopatra and he regaled one another alternately, and strove with emulation to exceed each other in the incredible mar-

nificence of their banquets.

The queen, however, who foresaw what right happen collected all sorts of poisons, and to try which of them occasigned death with the least pain, she made the experiment of their virtues and strength upon criminals in the prisons condemned to die. Having observed that the strongest poisons caused death the soonest, but with great torment, and that those which were gentle brought on an easy but slow death, she tried the biting of venomous creatures, and caused various kinds of serpents to be applied in her presence to different persons. She made these experiments every day, and discovered at length that the aspic was the only one that caused neither torture nor convulsions; but merely throw ing the persons bitten into an immediate heaviness and st pefaction, attended with a slight sweating upon the face as a numbness of all the organs of sense, gently extinguished life; so that those in that condition were angry when at one awakened them, or endeavoured to make them ris like people exceedingly sleepy. This was the poison st fixed upon.

To dispel Antony's suspicions and subjects of complain she applied herself with more than ordinary solicitude earessing him. Though she celebrated, her own birth-day with fittle solemnity, and suitably to her present condition, she kept that of Antony with a splendour and magnificence above what she had ever displayed before; so that many of the guests who came poor to that feast went rich from it.

Czsar knowing how important it was to him not to leave his victory imperfect, marched in the beginning of the spring into Syria, and from thence sat down before Pelusium. He sent to summon the governor to open the gates to him; and Seleucus, who commanded there for Cleopatra, having received secret orders upon that head, surrendered the place without waiting a siege. The rumour of this treason spread in the city. Cleopatra, to clear herself of the accusation, put the wife and children of Seleucus into Antony's hands, in order that he might revenge his treachery by putting them to death. What a monster was this princess! The most odious of vices were united in her person; an avowed disregard of modesty, breach of faith, injustice, cruelty, and, what crowns all the rest, the false exterior of a deceitful friendship, which covers a design formed to deliver up to his enemy the person she loads with the most tender caresses, and with marks of the warmest and most sincere attachment. Such are the effects of ambition, which was her predominant vice.

Adjoining to the temple of Isis she had caused tombs and halls to be erected, superb as well for their beauty and magnificence, as their loftiness and extent. Thither she ordered her most precious effects and moveables to be carried; gold silver, jewels, ebony, ivory, and a large quantity of perfume and aromatic wood; as if she intended to raise a funeral pile, upon which she would consume herself with her treasures. Casar, alarmed for the latter, and apprehending lest her despair should induce her to burn them, dispatched every day some person to her, to give her great hopes of the most kind and generous treatment, and nevertheless advanced towards the city by great marches.

Upon arriving there he encamped near the Hippodrome. He was in hopes of making himself master of the city soon, by means of the intelligence which he held with Cleopatra,

upon which he relied no less than upon his army.

Antony was ignorant of that princess's intrigues, and, being unwilling to believe what was told him of them, prepared for a good defence. He made a vigorous sally, and after having severely handled the besiegers, andwarmly pursued to the gates of their camp a detachment of horse which had been sent against him, he returned victorious into the city. This was the last effort of expiring valour; for, after this exploit, his fortitude and sense of glory abandoned him, or were ne-

ver after of any service to him. Instead of making use of this advantage, and of applying himself seriously to his defeace, by observing the motions of Cleopatra, who was betraying him, he came, completely armed as he was, to throw himself at her feet, and to kiss her hands. The whole palace of Alexandria immediately resounded with acclamations, as if the siege had been raised; and Cleopatra, who had no thoughts but of amusing Antony, ordered a magnificent feast to be prepared, at which they passed the rest of the day and part of the night together.

Early on the morrow, Antony resolved to attack Cæsar by sea and land. He drew up his land-army upon some eminences in the city; and from thence kept his galleys in view, which were going out of the port in order to charge those of Cæsar. He waited without making any motion to see the success of that attack; but was much astonished when he saw Cleopatra's admiral strike his flag when he came in view of Cæsar's, and surrender his whole fleet to him.

This treason opened Antony's eyes, and made him, when too late, give credit to what his friends had told him of the queen's perfidy. In this extremity he was for signalizing himself by an extraordinary act of valour, capable, in his opinion, of doing him abundance of honour. He sent to challenge Cæsar to a single combat. Cæsar made answer, that if Antony was weary of life, there were other ways to die besides that. Antony, seeing himself ridiculed by Cæsar, and betrayed by Cleopatra, returned into the city, and was a moment after abandoned by all his cavalry. Seized with rage and despair, he then flew to the palace, with design to avenge himself upon Cleopatra, but did not find her there.

That artful princess, who had foreseen what happened, to escape the rage of Antony, had retired into the quarter where stood the tombs of the kings of Lgypt, which was fortified with strong walls, and the gates of which she had ordered to be closed. She caused Antony to be told, that prefering an honourable death to a shameful captivity, she had killed herself in the midst of her ancestors' tombs, where she had also chosen her own sepulchre. Antony, too credulous, did not give himself time to examine a piece of news which he ought to have suspected after all Cleopatra's other infidelities; and struck with the idea of her death, passed immediately from excess of rage to the most violent transports of grief, and thought only of following her to the grave.

Having taken this furious resolution, he shut himself up in his apartment with a slave, and having caused his armour to be taken off, he commanded him to plunge his dagger into his breast. But that slave, full of affection, respect, and fi-

delity for his master, stabbed himself with it, and fell dead at his feet. Antony, looking upon this action as an example for him to follow, thrust his sword into his body, and fell upon the floor, in a torrent of his blood, which he mingled with that of his slave. At that moment an officer of the queen's guards came to let him know that she was alive. He no sooner heard the name of Cleopatra pronounced, than he opened his dying eyes, and being informed that she was not dead, he suffered his wound to be dressed, and afterwards caused himself to be carried to the fort where she had shut herself up. Cleopatra would not permit the gates to be opened to give him entrance, for fear of some surprise; but she appeared at an high window, from whence she threw down chains and cords. Antony was made fast to these, and Cleopatra, assisted by two women, who were the only persons she had brought with her into the tomb, drew him up. Never was there a more moving sight. Antony, all bathed in his blood, with death painted in his face, was dragged up in the air, turning his dying eyes, and extending his feeble hands. towards Cleopatra, as if to conjure her to receive his last breath; whilst she, with her features distorted and her arms strained, pulled the cords with her whole strength; the people below, who could give her no further aid, encouraging her with their cries.

When she had drawn him up to her, and had laid him on a bed, she tore her clothes upon him, and beating her breast, and wiping the blood from his wound, with her face close to his, she called him her prince, her lord, her dearest spouse. Whilst she made these mournful exclamations, she cut off Antony's hair, according to the superstition of the Pagans, who believed that it gave relief to those who died a violent

death.

Antony recovering his senses, and seeing Cleopatra's affliction, said to her, to comfort her, that he thought himself happy since he died in her arms; and that, as to his defeat, he was not ashamed of it, it being no disgrace for a Roman to be overcome by Romans. He afterwards advised her to save her life and kingdom, provided she could do so with honour; to be upon her guard against the traitors of her own court, as well as the Romans in Cæsar's train, and to trust only Proculeius. He expired with these words.

The same moment Proculeius arrived from Casar, who could not refrain from tears at the sad relation of what had passed, and at the sight of the sword still reeking with Antony's blood, which was presented to him. He had particular orders to get Cleopatra into his hands, and to take her alive, if possible. That princess refused to surrender herself to him. She had however a conversation with him with-

out letting him enter the tomb. He only came close to the gates which were well fastened, but gave passage for the voice through cracks. They talked a considerable time together, during which she continually asked the kingdom for her children; whilst he exhorted her to hope the best, and

pressed her to confide all her interests to Casar.

After having considered the place well, he went to make his report to Casar, who immediately sent Gallus to talk again with her. Gallus went to the gates, as Proculeius had done, and spoke like him through the crevices, protracting the conversation on purpose. In the mean while Proculeius brought a ladder to the wall, entered the tomb by the same window through which she and her women had drawn up Antony, and, followed by two officers who were with him, went down to the gate where she was speaking to Gallus. One of the two women who were shut up with her, seeing him come, cried out, quite out of her senses with fear and surprise. "O unfortunate Cleopatra, you are taken!" Cleopatra turned her head, saw Proculeius, and would have stabbed herself with a dagger, which she always carried at her girdle. But Proculeius ran nimbly to her, took her in his arms, and said to her, "You wrong yourself and Cæsar too, " in depriving him of so grateful an occasion of showing his " goodness and clemency." At the same time he forced the dagger out of her hands, and shook her robes, lest she should have concealed poison in them.

Casar sent one of his freedmen, named Epaphroditus, with orders to guard her carefully, to prevent her making any attempt upon herself, and to behave to her at the same time with all the attention and complaisance she could desire; he likewise instructed Proculeius to ask the queen what she de-

sired of him

Cæsar afterwards prepared to enter Alexandria, the conquest of which there were no longer any to dispute with him. He found the gates of it open, and all the inhabitants in extreme consternation, not knowing what they had to hope or fear. He entered the city, conversing with the philosopher Arius, upon whom he leant with an air of familiarity, to signify publicly the regard he had for him. Being arrived at the palace, he ascended a tribunal, which he ordered to be erected there; and, seeing the whole people prostrate upon the ground, he commanded them to rise. He then told them that he pardoned them for three reasons: the first, upon the account of Alexander their founder; the second, for the beauty of their city; and the third, for the sake of Arius, one of their citizens, whose merit and knowledge he esteem ed.

Proculeius, in the mean time, acquitted himself of his

commission to the queen, who at first asked nothing of Cæsar but his permission to bury Antony, which was granted her without difficulty. She spared no cost to render his interment magnificent, according to the custom of Egypt. She caused his body to be embalmed with the most exquisite perfumes of the East, and placed it amongst the tombs of the kings of Egypt.

Czsar did not think proper to see Cleopatra in the first days of her mourning; but, when he believed he might do it with decency, he was introduced into her chamber, after having asked her permission; being desirous to conceal his designs under the regard he professed for her. She was laid upon a little bed, in a very simple and neglected manner. When he entered her chamber, though she had nothing on but a single tunic, she rose immediately, and went to throw herself at his feet, horribly disfigured, her hair loose and disordered, her visage wild and haggard, her voice faultering, her eyes almost dissolved by excessive weeping, and her bosom covered with wounds and bruises. That natural grace and lofty mien which were inspired by her beauty, were, however, not wholly extinct; and notwithstanding the deplorable condition to which she was reduced, even through that depth of grief and dejection, as from a dark cloud, shot forth keen glances, and a kind of radiance which brightened in her looks, and in every movement of her countenance. Though she was almost dying, she did not despair of inspiring that young victor with love, as she had formerly done Cæsar and Antony.

The chamber where she received him was full of the portraits of Julius Czsar. "My Lord," said she to him, pointing to those pictures, "behold those images of him who " adopted you his successor in the Roman empire, and to "whom I am indebted for my crown." Then taking letters out of her bosom, which she had concealed in it, " See also," said she, kissing them, "the dear testimonies of his love." She afterwards read some of the most tender of them, commenting upon them, at proper intervals, with moving exclamations and passionate glances, but she employed those arts with no success; for, whether her charms had no longer the power they had in her youth, or that ambition was Cæsar's ruling passion, he did not seem affected with either her person or conversation; contenting himself with exhorting her to take courage, and assuring her of his good intentions. She was far from not discerning that coldness, from which she presaged no good; but dissembling her concern. and changing the discourse, she thanked him for the com-pliments Proculeius had made her in his name, and which he had thought fit to repeat in person. She added, that in

return she would deliver to him all the treasures of the kings of Egypt. And in fact, she put an inventory into his hands of all her moveables, jewels, and revenues. And as Seleucus, one of her treasurers, who was present, reproached her with not declaring the whole, and with having concealed part of her most valuable effects; incensed at so great an insult, she rose up, ran to him, and gave him several blows in the Then turning towards Cæsar, " Is it not a horrible "thing," said she to him, "that when you have not disdain-" ed to visit me, and have thought fit to consele me in the " sad condition in which I now am, my own domestics should " accuse me before you of retaining some women's jewels, not " to adorn a wretch like myself, but as a slight present to "your sister Octavia, and your wife Livia; that their pro-"tection may induce you to afford a more favourable treat-" ment to an unfortunate princess?"

Casar was exceedingly pleased to hear her talk in that manner, not doubting but the love of life inspired her with such language. He told her she might dispose as she pleased of the jewels she had reserved; and after having assured her that he would treat her with more generosity and magnificence than she could venture to hope, he withdrew, imagining that he had deceived her, and was deceived himself.

Not doubting, but Cæsar intended to make her serve as an ornament to his triumph, she had no other thoughts than to avoid that shame by dying. She well knew that she was observed by the guards who had been assigned her, who under colour of doing her honour, followed her every where; and besides, that her time was short, Cæsar's departure approaching. The better therefore to cajole him, she sent to desire that she might go to pay her last duty at the tomb of Antony and take her leave of him. Cæsar having granted her that permission, she went thither accordingly to bathe that tomb with her tears, and to assure Antony, to whom she addressed her discourse as if he had been present before her eyes, that she would soon give him a more certain proof of her affection.

After that fatal protestation, which she accompanied with sighs and tears, she caused the tomb to be covered with flowers, and returned to her chamber. She then went into a bath, and from the bath to table, having ordered it to be served magnificently. When she arose from table, she wrote a letter to Cæsar; and having made all quit her chamber except her two women, she shut the door, sat down upon a souch, and asked for a basket of figs, which a peasant had lately brought. She placed it by her, and a moment after luid down as if she had fallen asleep. But that was the effect of the aspic, which was concealed amongs the fruit and

had stung her in the arm, which she had held to it. The poison immediately communicated itself to the heart, and killed her without pain, or being perceived by any body. The guards had orders to let nothing pass without a strict examination; but the disguised peasant, who was one of the queen's faithful servants, played his part so well, and there seemed so little appearance of decei in a basket of figs, that the guards suffered him to enter. Thus all Cæsar's precautions were ineffectual.

He did not doubt Cleopatra's resolution, after having read the letter she had written to him, to desire that he would suffer her body to be laid in the same tomb with that of Antony, and he instantly dispatched two officers to prevent it. But not withstanding all the haste they could make they found

her dead.

That a princess was too haughty and too much above the vulgar, to suffer herself to be led in triumph at the wheels of the victor's chariot. Determined to die, and thence become capable of the fiercest resolutions, she saw, with a tearless and steadfast eye, the mortal venom of the aspic glide into her veins.

She died at thirty-nine years of age, of which she had reigned twenty-two from the death of her father. The statues of Antony were thrown down, and those of Cleopatra remained as they were; Archibius, who had long been in her service, having given Cæsar a thousand talents that they

might not be treated as Antony's had been.

After Cleopatra's death, Egypt was reduced into a province of the Roman empire, and governed by a prefect sent thither from Rome. The reign of the Ptolemies in Egypt, if we date its commencement from the death of Alexander the Great, had continued two hundred fourscore and thirteen years, from the year of the world 3681 to 3974.

a Aus et jacentem vierte regiam Vultu servno fortis, et asperas Tractare serpentes, ut atrum Corpore combiberet vancaum; Deliberats morte ieroctor : Sævis Laburoffi scilicet invidens Privata deduci superbo Non humils mulier triumpho,

Hor. Od. axavii. l. i.

Not the dark palace of the realms below
Can awe the furious purpose of her soul;
Galmly she looks row her superior wo,
That can both death and fear control!
Provokes the serpent's sting his rage disdains,
And joys to feel his poison in her veins.
Invisious to the victor's fancy'd pride,
She will not from her own descend,
Disgrae'd a vulgar captive by his side,
His pomposs triumph to attend;
But floreely flies to death, and hids her sorrews end-

CONCLUSION.

OF THE

ANCIENT HISTORY.

WE have seen hitherto, without speaking of the first and ancient kingdom of Egypt, and of some states separate, and in a manner entirely distinct from the rest, three great successive empires, founded on the ruins of each other, subsist during a long series of ages, and at length entirely disappear; the empire of the Babylonians, the empire of the Medes and Persians, and the empire of the Macedonians and the Grecian princes, successors of Alexander the Great. A fourth empire still remains, that of the Romans, which, having already swallowed up most of those which have preceded it, will extend its conquests, and, after having subjected all to its power by force of arms, will be itself torn, in a manner, into different pieces, and by being so dismembered, make way for the establishment of almost all the kingdoms which now divide Europe, Asia, and Africa. Behold here, to speak properly, a picture on a small scale of the duration of all ages; of the glory and power of all the empires of the world; in a word, of all that is most splendid and most capable of exciting admiration in human greatness! Every excellence by an happy concurrence is here found assembled: the fire of genius, delicacy of taste, accompanied by solid judgment; uncommon powers of eloquence, carried to the highest degree of perfection, without departing from nature and truth; the glory of arms, with that of arts and sciences; valour in conquering, and ability in government. multitude of great men of every kind does it not present to our view! What powerful, what glorious kings! What great captains! What famous conquerors! What wise magistrates! What learned philosophers! What admirable legislators! We are transported with beholding in certain ages and countries, who appear to possess them as privileges peculiar to themselves, an ardent zeal for justice, a passionate love for their country, a noble disinterestedness, a generous contempt

of riches, and an esteem for poverty, which astonish and amaze us, so much do they appear above human nature.

In this manner we think and judge. But, whilst we are in admiration and extacy at the view of so many shining virtues, the Supreme Judge, who can alone truly estimate all things, sees nothing in them but littleness, meanness, vanity, and pride; and, whilst mankind are anxiously busied in perpetuating the power of their families, in founding kingdoms. and, if that were possible, rendering them eternal, Gon. from his throne on high, overthrows all their projects, and makes even their ambition the means of executing his purposes, infinitely superior to our understandings. He alone knows his operations and designs. All ages are present to him; ""he seeth from everlasting to everlasting." He has assigned to all empires their fate and duration. In all the different revolutions which we have seen, nothing has come to pass by chance. We know, that under the image of that statue, which Nebuchodonosor saw, of an enormous height and terrible aspect, with the head of gold, the breast and arms of silver, the belly and thighs of brass, and the legs of iron mixed with clay, Gon thought fit to represent the four great empires, uniting in them, as we have seen in the course of this history, all that is splendid, grand, formidable, and powerful. And of what has the Almighty occasion for overthrowing this immense colossus? 6 " A small stone was cut out without hands, which smote the image upon his feet, that were of iron and clay, and brake them to pieces. Then was the iron, the clay the brass, the silver, and the gold. broken to pieces together, and became like the chaff of the summer threshing floors, and the wind carried them away, that no place was found for them; and the stone that smote the image became a great mountain, and filled the whole earth."

We see with our own eyes the accomplishment of this admirable prophecy of Daniel, at least in part. Jesus Christ, who came down from heaven to clothe himself with flesh and blood in the sacred womb of the blessed virgin, without the participation of man, is the small stone that came from the mountain without human aid. The prevailing characteristics of his person, of his relations, his appearance, his manner of teaching, his disciples, in a word, of every thing that relates to him, were simplicity, poverty, and humility; which were so extreme, that they conceal from the eyes of the proud Jews the divine lustre of his miracles, how shining soever it was, and from the sight of the devil himself, penetrating and attentive as he was, the evident proofs of his divinity.

a Beelus axxix. 20.

Notwithstanding that seeming weakness, and even meanness, Jesus Christ will certainly conquer the whole universe. It is under this idea that a prophet represents him to us: "He went forth conquering and to conquer." His work and mission are, "to set up a kingdom for his father, "which shall never be destroyed, and the kingdom which "shall not be left to other people;" like those of which we have seen the history; "but it shall break in pieces, and "consume all these kingdoms, and it shall stand for ever."

The power granted to JESUS CHRIST, the founder of this empire, is without bounds, measure, or end. The kings, who glory so much in their might, have nothing which approaches in the slightest degree to that of Jesus Christ. not reign over the will of man, which is real dominion. Their subjects can think as they please independently of them. There are an infinitude of particular actions done without their order, and which escape their knowledge, as well as their power. Their designs often miscarry and come to nothing, even during their own lives. At least all their greatness vanishes and perishes with them. But with JESUS CHRIST it is quite otherwise. b" All power is given unto "him in heaven and in earth." He exercises it principally upon the hearts and minds of men. Nothing is done without his order or permission. Every thing is disposed by his wisdom and power. Every thing co-operates, directly or indirectly, to the accomplishment of his designs.

Whilst all things are in motion and fluctuate upon earth; whilst states and empires pass away with incredible rapidity. and the human race, vainly employed with these outward appearances, are also drawn in by the same torrent, almost without perceiving it; there passes in secret an order and disposition of things unknown and invisible, which however determines our fate to all eternity. The duration of ages has no other end than the formation of the company of the elect, which augments and tends daily towards perfection. When it shall have received its final accomplishment by the death of the last of the elect, "Then cometh the end, " when JESUS CHRIST shall have delivered up the kingdom " to God, even the FATHER; when he shall have put down " all rule, and all authority, and power." Gon grant that we may all have our share in that blessed kingdom, whose law is truth, whose king is love, and whose duration is eternity.

Fiat, Fiat.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

ADVERTISEMENT.

CHRONOLOGY is the knowledge of the just computation of time. It shows to what year the events related in history are to be referred. The years used for measuring the

duration of time are either Solar or Lunar.

The Solar Year is that space of time which elapses between one equinox and another of the same denomination the next year; for instance, from the vernal equinox to the vernal equinox following, which contains 365 days, five hours, and forty-nine minutes.

The lunar year is composed of twelve lunar months, each of which consists of twenty-nine days, twelve hours, and forty-four minutes, that make in all 354 days, eight hours,

and forty-eight minutes.

Both of these years are called Astronomical, to distinguish them from that in common use, which is termed Civil or

Political.

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Though all nations may not agree with one another in the manner of determining their years, some regulating them by the motion of the sun, and others by that of the moon, they however generally use the solar year in chronology. It seems, at first, that as the lunar years are shorter than the solar, that inequality should produce some error in chronological calculations. But it is to be observed, that the nations who used lunar years, added a certain number of intercalary days to make them agree with the solar; which makes them correspond with each other, or, at least, if there be any difference, it may be neglected, when the question is only to determine the year in which a fact happened.

In chronology there are certain times distinguished by some great event, to which all the rest are referred. These are called Epochs, from a Greek a word, which signifies to stop, because we stop there to consider, as from a resting place,

all that has happened before or after, and by that means to avoid anachronisms, that is to say, those errors which induce confusion of times.

The choice of the events which are to serve as epochs, is arbitrary, and a writer of a history may take such as best

suit his plan.

When we begin to compute years from one of these points distinguished by a considerable event, the enumeration and series of such years is called an Æra. There are almost as many æras as there have been different nations. The principal, and those most in use, are that of the Creation of the World, of the Birth of Jesus Christ, of the Olympiads, and of the Building of Rome. I should have been glad to have used all the four in the Chronological Table at the end of my history. But the narrow compass of these pages obliges me to confine myself to the two most famous, that is to say, that of

the World, and that of Jesus Christ.

Every body knows, that the Olympiads derived their origin from the Olympic games, which were celebrated in Peloponnesus, near the city of Olympia. These games were so solemn, that Greece made them her epoch for computing her years. By an Olympiad is meant the space of four years complete, which is the time that elapsed between one celebration of the games and another. The first used by chronologers begins, according to Usher, in the summer of the year of the World 3228, before Christ 776. When the time in which an event happened is reckoned by Olympiads, authors say the first, second, or third, &c. year of such an Olympiad; which being once known, it is easy to find the year of the world to which the same fact is to be referred; and in like manner, when the year of the world is known, it is easy to find that of the Olympiad which agrees with it.

Rome was built, according to Varro's Chronology, in the year of the world 3251, and the 753d before Jesus Christ. Cato dates the foundation of that city two years later, in the year of the world \$253, before Jesus Christ 751. I shall follow the opinion of the latter in my Roman history. The years reckoned from this epoch are called indifferently years

of Rome, or years from the foundation of the city.

The Julian period is also a famous æra in chronology, used principally for reckoning the years before Christ. I am going to explain in a few words wherein this period consists, and its use; but first I must give the reader an idea of the three cycles, of which it is composed.

By the word cycle, is understood the revolution of a certain

number of years.

The Solar Cycle is a term of twenty-eight years, which includes all the variations that the Sundays and days of the

week admit, that is to say, at the end of twenty-eight years the first seven letters of the alphabet, which are used in the calendar for noting the day of the week, and which are called Dominical Letters, return in the same order in which they were at first. To understand what I have now said, it must be observed, that if the year had only fifty-two weeks, there would be no change in the order of the dominical letters. But as it has a day more, and two in leapyear, that produces some variations which are all included in the space of twenty-eight years, of which the solar cycle consists.

The Lunar Cycle, called also the Golden Number, is the revolution of nineteen years, at the end of which the moon returns, within an hour and a half, to the same point with the sun, and begins its lunations again in the same order as a first. We are indebted for the invention of this cycle to Meto, a famous Athenian astronomer. Before the invention of the epacts, it was used for marking the days of the new

moon in the calendar.

Besides these two cycles, chronologers admit a third also, called Indiction. This is a revolution of fifteen years, of which the first is called the first indiction, the second the second indiction, and so on to the fifteenth, after which they begin again to count the first indiction, &c.

The first indiction is generally supposed to have begun

three years before the birth of Christ.

If these three cycles, that is to say, 28, 19, and 15, are multiplied by each other, the product will be 7980, which is

what is called the Julian period

One of the properties of this period, is to give the three characteristic cycles of each year, that is to say, the current year of each of the three cycles; for example, every body knows that the vulgar zra commences at the year 4714 of the Julian period. If that number be divided by 28, what remains a after the division, shows the solar cycle of that year. In the same manner the lunar cycle and the indiction may be found. It is demonstrated, that the three numbers which express these three cycles cannot be found again in the same order in any other year of the Julian period. It is the same in respect to the cycles of other years.

If we trace this period back to its first year, that is to say, to the year when the three cycles, of which it is composed, began, we shall find it precede the creation of the world 710 years; supposing the creation to precede the vulgar æra only

4004 years.

This period is called Julian, because it is made to agree

q Lasy what remains, and not the quotient, as some authors do; for the quotient supperson the number of cycles elapsed since the beginning of the period and what remains after the division shows the year of the current cycle.

with the years of Julius Czsar. Scaliger invented it to reconcile the systems that divided chronologers concerning the length of time elapsed since the beginning of the world. There are who believe that only 4004 years of the world are to be reckoned before Jesus Christ. Others give more extent to that space, and augment the number of years of which it consists. These variations disappear when the Julian period is used, for every body agrees in respect to the year in which that began, and there is nobody who does not allow that the first year of the vulgar zra falls in with the 4714th of that period. Thus in the Julian period there are two fixed points, which unite all systems, and reconcile all chronologers.

It is easy to find the year of the Julian period, that answers to any year whatsoever of the vulgar zra of the world. For as the beginning of the Julian period precedes that zra 710 years, by adding that number to the year proposed of the zra of the world, we have the year of the Julian period that answers to it. For instance, we know that the battle of Arbela was fought in the year of the world 3673. If to that number we add 710, it will be 4383, which number expresses the year of the Julian period, to which the battle of Arbela is to

be referred.

It remains for me to say a few words upon the order I have observed in my Chronological Table. At first I proposed to make as many columns as there are different nations mentioned in my work, whose history falls out in the same times, and to place them all in the same line with each other, in order that all the events that happened in the same year might be seen at one view. But, besides my not having sufficient room to place so many columns side by side with each other, I found that I should have been obliged to leave too many blank spaces, which would have considerably lengthened the table, and in consequence swelled the volume, which, as it is, is very large. I therefore chose to separate the Carthaginians and Syracusans, and to give their chronology apart. The histories of those two people are closely connected with each other, and have little relation to those of the other nations of whom I have treated.

The reader knows, that hitherto I have not entered into chronological discussions, and undoubtedly does not expect that I should do so now. I shall generally follow Usher,

whom I have chosen for my guide in this subject.

THE TABLE.

A.M. A.C.

ASSYRIANS.

1800. 2204. Nimrod, founder of the first empire of the Assyrians, Ninus, the son of Nimrod. Semiramis; she reigned 42 years. Ninyas.

> The history of the successors of Ninyas for thirty generations, except of Phul and Sardanapalus, is unknown.

> > EGYPT. GREECE.

1816. 2138. Menes or Mearaim, first king of Egypt.

Busiris. Osymandias. Uchoreus. Maeria.

1915. 9089.

Foundation of the kingdom of Sieyon.

1920, 2084. The Shepherd-kings seize Lower Egypt. They reign 260 years.

2084. 1920. Abraham enters Egypt, where Sarah is in great danger from one of the Shepherd-kings.

2148, 1856.

Foundation of the kingdom of Argos. Deluge of Ogyges in Attica.

2179. 1825. Thethmosis expels the Shepherd-kings, and reigns in Lower Egypt.

2276. 1728. Joseph is carried into Egypt and sold to Potipher.

2298. 1706. Jacob goes into Egypt with his family.

2427.1577. Ramesses-Miamum begins to reign in Egypt. He persecutes the israelites.

Cecrops conducts a colony Foundation of the kingdom from Egypt, and founds the of Atheus by Cecrops. He **2448.** 1556, kingdom of Athens.

2488. **1**516.

institutes the Arcupagus,

Under Cranaus, successor of Cecrops, happens Deucalion's flood.

Foundation of the kingdom of Lacedemonia, a which Lelex is the first king.

EGYPT.

GREECE

2494. 1510. Amenophis, the eldest son of Ramesses, succeeds him.

2513. 1491. The Israelites quit Egypt.
Amenophis is swallowed up
im the Red-sea. Seststris his
son succeeds him. He divides Egypt isso thirty
nomes, or districts, renders
Ethiopis tributary, conquers
Asia, and subjects the Seythians as far as the Tanais.
On his return into Egypt he
hills himself after a reign of

33 years.

2550. 1474.

Danitis, brother of Sesoutris, leaves Egypt and retires into the Pritopoinnessa, where he makes himstelf master of Argos.

2547, 1457. Pheron succeeds Sesostria. Persona, the fifth of Danatis's successors, having unfortunately killed his grandfather, abandons Argos, and founds the kingdom of My-

Sisyphus the son of Rolus makes himself master of Co-

.....

2710. 1**294.**

2628. 1376.

The descendants of Sizyphus are driven out of Corinth by the Heraclids.

SESO. 1984

Egeus, the son of Pandion, king of Atties. The expedition of the Argonauti is dated in the reign of this prince.

2800, 1204. Proteus. In his reign Paris is driven into Egypt on his return to T'suy with Helen.

The Heraclide make themselves masters of Pelopontresus, from whence they are obliged to retire soon alter.

Rhampsinit. Cheops. Chephrem. Myserinus. Asychis

The six preceding reigns were 170 years in duration, but it is hard to satign the tength of each of them in particular.

AM. A EGYPT. GREECE. **2820**. 1184. Troy taken by the Greeks. **2900**. 1104. The Heraelida re-enter Pelopounesus, and seize Sparta, where the two brothers

Eury sthenes and Poeles reign together. lustitution of the Archons

at Athens. Medon, the son of Codrus, is the first.

Cadmus builds the city of Thebes, and makes it the reat of his government.

2934 1070. 2949. 1055.

2991. 1013. Pharaoh king of Egypt gives his daughter in marriage to Solomon.

Sesse, otherwise called Sesonchis. It was with him 978. that Jeroboam took refuge.

3033. 971. Sesac marches against Jerusalem, and conquers Judæa.

3063. 951. Zara, king of Egypt, makes war with Ass, king of Judah. Anysis. In his reign Sabacus, king of Ethiopia, makes himself master of Egypt, reigns there fifty years, after which he retires. and leaves the kingdom to

Apysis.

3120 884. 3160. 844.

3210. 794

3**228.** 776.

Lycurgus.

Homer. Hesiod lived about the same time.

Caranus founds the king. dom of Macedonia.

Beginning of the common Bra of the Olympiads.

I now resume the chronology of the Assyrians, which I discontinued, because, from Ninyas dewn to about this time, nothing is known of their history.

ASSYRIANS.

3233. 771. Phul. This is the king of Nineveh, who repented upon Jonah's presching.

S287. 767. Sardanapalus, the last king of the first empire of the Assyrians. After a reign of twenty years he burns him-.. self in his palace.

The first empire of the Assyrians, which ended at the death of Sardanapalus, had subsisted more than 1450 years. Out of its ruins three others were formed that

ASSYRIANS.

of the Assyrians of Babylon, that of the Assyrians of Nineveh, and that of the Medea.

Egypt. Greece. Bahylan. Mneveh. Media. Lydia. Belesis, 3257. 747. namer. The

or Nabo Pilesar. calls him he aids Baladan.

Tighth Arbaces ex-The 8th ercises year of the soscripture his reign vereign authority Ahaz over the king of Medes

Judah, & without Heraclitaking

First war between the Messenians and Lacedaemonians. It continues 20 years.

makes himself of part of the kingdom of Judah.

dae posuponhim sess the master of the title kingdom Syria, and of king. of Lydia 505 years. Argon was the first king.

> He began to reign

A. ML2781.

The his-

tory of

his suc-

cessors is little

known

before

Candau-

3268, 736,

S269, 735.

3280, 724.

3285. 719.

3261. 743.

dach Baladan. He sent ambassadors to Hezekiah, to congratulate him upon the Archi- recovery of his bealth. Nothing

of the

other

kings

who

Mero-

Salmapasar. In the 8th vear of his reign is known he took Samaria, and carried away

the peo-

ple into

les. Gyges. He puts Candaules to death. and reignsin

his stead.

He the fa-3286. 718. reigned mous

14 years, poet.

Schon. lochus

reigned in Baby- captivity. Ion.

3287. 717.

Sennacherib. In the 5th vear of his reign he makes war against Hezekiah king of

Judah.

A.M. A.S. Egypt. Greece. Babylon, Ninevelt. Media. Lodin.

An angel destroys his army at the time he is besieging Jerusalem. On his return to his kingdom he is killd by his two sons. Asar-

3**294. 710.** 3**296. 708.**

3298. 706. Thereca reigns 18 years. Anarchy

Egypt. 3319. 685. Twelve 3320. 684. of the

3393. 684. of the Second 3923. 681. principal war be-3324. 680. lords of tween Egypt the Laseize the ecdaekingdom, monians of which and

2 yearsia

each go- Messeverns a nians part with 14 years equal au-

equal authority.

3327. 677. Psemmi-3334. 670. ticus, one

of the 12 kings, defeats the other 11, and remains sole master of Egypt. He takes Azotus af-

ter a siege of 29 years, haddon. Dejoces

himself to be deelared king of the Medea.

Assrhaddon unites the empire of Babylon with that of Nineveh.

Asar-haddon earries the re-mains of the king-dom of Israel in-to Assy-ria. The same year he puts Manas-seh in

chains, &

Death of Gyges. Ardys his son succeeds him. In his reign, of 49 years, the Cimmerians made them-selves masters of Sardis.

A.M. A.C. Egypt. Greece. Babylon. Nineveh. Media. Zudia. carries

him into Babylon.

3335, 669, 3347. 657.

Babyl. & Ninev. Saceduchin, or Nabuchodonosor L Death The 12th year of of Dejo-his reign he de-ces. Phraortes, Phraorfeats king of the Medes, tes sucand takes Ecbata- ceeds na. It was after him. this expedition that he made Holophernes besiege Bethu-

335**6. 648.**

3364, 640, **3369** 635. **337**3. 631.

3**378. 629**.

Death of Nabucho-Tyrtaeus donosor. Saracus,

called also Chyna- Phraa poet, who ex- ladanus, succeeded ortes celled in him. Nabopolassar's re- at the forms the celebrating mili- volt against Sara- siege of siege of

tary vir- cus. himself master of veh, Thales, Babylon.

of Miletus. founder of the Ionic sect.

Sadvatperishes tes.

He makes Nine-Miletus in the with 16th year part of of his his arreign. my. Cy-

axares his son succeeds him. The second year of his reign he beats the Assy rians, and attacks Nineveh, the niege of which he is o-

bliged to abandon by a sudden

CH	RONOLOGICAL TABLE	. 191
A.M. A.C. Egypt. G	reece. Babylen & Nineveh	. Media. Lydia. irrup- tion of the Soythi- ans into his do- min- ions.
3385. 619. le:	Draco, Bestruction of Ni- pislator nevel. From Athens. thenceforth Baby- lon was the capital of the Assyrian empire. Babylon.	Cyaxa- res Alyattes. joins hisHe conti- forces nues the
\$97. 607. feats the king of Assyria, and seizes part of his do-	Nabopolassar as- sociates his sen Na- bushodonosor in the empire, and sends him at the head of an army to reconquer the coun-	polas- sar, carried takes on six Nine- years by his father, and puts puts an end te
miniona, He reign- 398, 606, ed 16 yeara:	tries taken from him by Nechao. Jerusalem taken by Nabuchodonosor. He transports a great number of Jews to Babylon, and amongst them the prophet Daniel. The captivity begins from his car-	eus its years af- king ter, by to onclud- death. ing a peace with the besieged. In the same prince's reign
ve of	rying away the Jews to Babylon. Death of Nabo- Solon. Death of Nabo- Solon. Nabuchodonosor m sages II. succeeds him in Greece all his dominions. red a- Nabuchodono-	there was a war be- tween the Medes and Ly- dians, which was ter-
M04.600. Pasm- be mis, six tir years. A fr w tt ic tr	out this sor's first dream me. interpreted by s Alcaeus, Daniel. om ohom and lea ge o verses ske their same. Sappho,	Asty-minated ges, by the he son marriage f Cy- of Cyaxa-xares, res with ives Aryenis his the laugh- daughter er in- of Aly-marriates.
		•

A.M. A.C. Egypt. Greece. same time.

Babylon.

Media. Lydia. Cambyses king

3405, 399,

3409. 595. 3410. 594.

Apries. He makes himself master of Siden, in the first year of

his reign. 3411. 596. Zedo-

kish king of Judah, makes an alliance with the king of

Egypt, 3416. 582. contrary to the advice of Jo-

remish.
3430. 574. Unfortunate
expedi-

tion of Apries into Lybia.

Amais revolts against Apries.

\$4.52.572. Nabuchedoneser subjects Egypt, and confirms Amass in

the 3**434, 570, throne.**

Nabuchodonosor's lieutenants, Cyrus,
after having ravagedJudea, block- Cyaxares,
ade Jerusalem, Astyages
and pnt king Jehis son
loiakim to death, succeeds
About the end of him. He
the same year, reigns 35
Nabuchodonosor years.

naneonoonoor yrepairs in person to Jerusalem, makes himself master of it, and appoints Zedekiah king instead of Jehoiachin, whem he earries into apptivity.

Nabuchodonosor Cyrus destroys Jerusa- goes for lem, and carries the first away Zedekiah time into saptive to Baby- Media, to los. At his re- see his turn into his do- grand faminions, he caus- ther Ases the three tyages, young Hebrews to He re- be thrown into the maius 6 the furnace.

years with him.

Mabuchodonosor makes himself master of Tyre, after a siege of 15 years. He did not march against E-gypt till after this expedition. Mabuchodonosor's second dream in-

second dream interpreted by Daniel.

3435. 569. Apries Nabuehodonosor
3440. 564. dies in the Thespis reduced to the
25th year reforms condition of beasts
of his tragety, during seven
reign. Pythago-years, after which

riage of bria be-

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE. A.M. A.C. Brypt. Greece. Babylon. Media. Lydia. Amasis ras lived he reigns again reigns af- about this one year. Evilter him in time. Merodach hieson. peace. succeeds him. He reigns only two 3442. 562, years. Crœsus. Simoni- Nerighissor. He Death of Æsop des, the makes great pre- Astyages lived in 3444, 560. celebrat- parations for war Cyaxares hisreign, ed poet. against the Medes, succeeds and was and calls in Cros- him, sus to his aid. known in court at scripthe ture upanne der the time name of with Sen Darius lon. the Mede. \$145, 559. Pisistra-Cyrus tus makes returns into Mehimself master of dia for the Athens. become time, in order to assist his unele in the war with the Babylonians. Expedi-3447. 557. tion of Cyrus against the king of Armenia. 3448, 556. Laboroscarchod. Cyaxares Crossus He reigns only and Cy- flies benine months. rus defeat fore Cythe Baby rus. lonians in a great battle, in which Neriglissor is slain. About Labyait, called in 3449, 555. scripture Belshaz- this time Battle \$456. 548. the mar- of Thym-Hippo- zar.

3460. 544.

VOL. VIII.

nax, au-

R

A.M.A.C. Egypt.

Greece. thor of the verse Heracli-

Seazon. tus, chief

of the sect which bears his name. Birth of

Æschy-Ctesi-

3468, 536.

3464, 540,

3466, 537.

Babylen, Media. Lydia.

Cyrus tween with the Crossus daugh- and Cyter of his rus, folunele lowed Cyaxa- with the res may taking of

be dated. Surdis by the latter. Band of

Labynit is killed Cyrus the kingat the taking of makes dom of The himself Lydia. Babylon. phon or death of that masterof Cher- prince putsan end Babylon. siphron, a to the Babylonian Death

celebrat- empire, which is of Cya-

ed archi- united with that of xares. tect, fa- the Medes. mous especially for building the temple of Diana of Ephesus.

After the death of Cyaxares and Cambyses, Cyrus, who succeeds both in their dominions, united the empire of the Medes with those of the Babylonians and Persians, and of the three formed a fourth, under the name of the empire of the Persians, which subsisted 206 years.

Empire of the Persians.

3468. 536.

3470. 534

3475. 529.

3478. 526. reigns

only six months. ceeds After the him. death of

Cyrus. The first year of his reign he perm the Jews to return into Judaea.

Daniel' svision concerning the succession of the kings of Persia.

Cyrus dies on a tour which he Death of makes into Persia, after his having 3479. 525. Psamme- Pisistra- reigned seven years alone, and 30 nitus. He tus. Hip- from his setting out from Persia at pias his the head of an army to aid Cyaxares.

son suc- Cambyses his son succeeds him. The fourth year of his reign he attacks Egypt, and re-unites it to the king

dom of the Persians.

A.M. A.C. Egypt. Greece. 3480. 524. that

Empire of Persia.

prince 3481. 523. Egypt is annexed

Unsuccessful expedition of Cambyses against the Ethiopians.

to the Persian dominions, and

Cambyses puts Merce, who was both his sister and wife, to death.

continues i482. 522. so till the reign of Alexander the

it was about this time that Oretes. one of the Satrapae of Cambyses, made himself master of the island of Samos. and caused Polycrates the tyrant of it to be put to death.

Great. \$483, 521, which in-

Death of Cambyses. Smerdis the Magian, who had mounted the throne before the death of Cambyses, sucseeds him. He reigns only seven months.

3585. 519. cludes the space of 206 vears.

Darius, the son of Hystaspes.

Edict of Darius in favour of the Jews, wherein that of Cyrus is repealed. It is believed that what is related in the history of Esther happened some time after the publication of this edict.

3488, 516.

Babylon revolts against Darius, and is taken after a siege of 20 months.

3490, 514,

Miltia-Expedition of Darius against the des goes Scythians.

to settle in the Cherso-

3496, 508,

nesus. The Pi- Darius penetrates into India, and sistratidae reduces all that great country into are oblig- subjection.

ed to abandon

Attica. The history of the Greeks from henceforth will be intermixed and almost confounded with that of the Persians for which reason I shall separate their chronology no farther.

PERSIANS AND GRECIANS.

3501. 503.

The Persians form the siege of the capital of the island of Naxos, and are obliged to raise it at the end of six

months. 3502. 5**02**.

Aristagoras, governor of Miletus, revolts from Darius, and brings the Ionians and Athenians into his measures. The Ionians make themselves masters of Sardis, and

3504. 500.

burn it. 3507. 497. The Persians defeat the lonians in a sea-fight before the island of Lados, and afterwards make themselves masters of Miletus.

Æschylus.

PERSIANS AND GREEKS. A.M. A.C.

Darius sends Gobryas his son-in-law at the head of an 3510, 494 army to attack Greece.

Anacreon. Darius takes the command of his armies from Gobry-3513. 491. as, and gives it to Datis and Artaphernes.

Rattle of Marathon. 351**4. 4:0**.

Unfortunate end of Miltiades. 3515. 489.

Death of Darius Hystaspes. Xerxes his son succeeds 3519. 485.

Birth of the historian Herodotus. 3520. **484**.

Xerxes sets out to make war against the Greeks. **3524.** 480. Battle of Thermopylae. Leonidas, king of the Lacedaemonians, is killed in it. Sea-fight near Artemianum at the same time as the battle of Thermopylae.

Birth of Euripides.

Battle of Salamis, followed by the precipitate return of Xerxes into Persia. Battle of Platae. Sea-fight the same day near Mycale, 3525. 479.

in which the Persians are defeated. The Athenians rebuild the walls of their city, which 3256. 478.

had been demolished by Xerxes, notwithstanding the opposition of the Lacedaemonians.

The command of the armies of Greece, of which the 3528. 476. Lacedaemonians had been in possession from the battle of Thermopylae, is transferred to the Athenians.

Pipdar flourished about this time.

Pausanias, general of the Lacedaemonians, accused of 3530, 474. holding secret intelligence with Xerxes, is put to death.

Themistocles, the Athenian general, is accused of hav-3531. 473. ing had a share in Pausanias's plot, and takes refuge with Admetus, king of the Molossians. Sophocles and Euripides distinguish themselves in

> Greece about this time. Xerxes is killed by Artabanus, the captain of his

3582. 472.

guards Artaxerxes, surnamed Longimanus, succeeds him-Themistocles takes refuge in his court the first year of his reign.

3583. 471. Cimon receives the command of the armies at Athens. The year following he defeats the Persians, and takes their fleet near the Mouth of the river Eurymedon.

Birth of the historian Thuevdides.

Great earthquikes at Sparta in the reign of Archida-3534, 470. mus, which gives rise to a sedition of the Helots. Birth of Secrates.

Pericles begins to distinguish himself. 3535, 469,

Pkidas, famous for his skill in architecture and sculpture.

Difference and misunderstanding between the Atheniane and Lacedsemonians, occasioned by the affront offered to the Athenians by the Lacedacrosnians in sending back their troops, after having called in their aid against

PERSIANS AND GREEKS.

the Messenians and Helots. Some time after, and in consequence of this quarrel, Cimon is banished by the Ostraciam.

3537. 467. Ezra obtains a commission from Artaxerxes to return to Jerusalem with all who are willing to follow him.

Themistocles puts an end to his life at Magnesia. 3538. 466. 3540. 464. Herodicus of Sicily, chief of the sect of physicians, call-

ed Aggrarian. Hippocrates was his disciple. 3544. 460. The Egyptians, supported by the Athenians, revolt

against Artuxerxes.

Defeat of the Persian army in Egypt.

3545, 459. 3548, 456, The Egyptians and Athenians are beaten in their turn. In consequence of which all Egypt returns to its obedience of Artaxerxes, and the Athenians retire to Biblos. under the command of Inarus, where they sustain a siege

> Battle of Tanagra in Bosotia, where the Athenians heat the Spartans, who were come to the aid of the Thebans.

Nehemiah obtains Artaxerxes's permission to return 3550. **454.** to Jerusalem.

3554. 450. Birth of Xenophon.

Cimon recalled from banishment after five years' absence, reconciles the Athenians and Spartans, and makes them conclude a truce for five years.

3555, 449, End of the war between the Greeks and Persians. which had continued, from the burning of Sardis by the Athenians, fifty-one years.

Death of Cimon.

3558, 446, The Lacedaemonians conclude a truce for thirty years with the Athenians. The latter soon break it by new enterprises.

Empedocles, the Pythagorean philosopher, fleurished about this time.

Myron, the famous sculptor of Athens.

Pericles makes war with the Samians, and takes the 3564, 440, capital of their island after a siege of nine months.

Zeuxis, the famous painter, disciple of Apollodorus. Parrhasius, his rival, lived at the same time.

Aristophanes, the comic poet.

3568, **436**. Birth of Isocrates.

War between the Corinthians and the people of Cor-

cyra. The Athenians engage in it in favour of the Corcyreans. The inhabitants of Potidaea declare on the side of Corinth against Athens. Alcibiades begins to distinguish himself in this war, which occasions that of Peloponnesus. Scopas, architect and sculptor.

Beginning of the Poloponnesian war. It subsists 3573. 431.

twenty-seven years. A terrible plague rages in Attica. The physician 3574. 430. Hippocrates distinguishes himself by his extraordinary care of the sick.

k 2

PERSIANS AND GREEKS.

3575. 429. Death of Pericles.

3576. 428. The Lacednemonians besiege Plataes.

Plato, founder of the Ancient Academy.

3579, 425. Death of Artaxerxes. Xerxes his son succeeds him. He reigns only forty-five days.

Sogdianus puts Xerxes to death, and causes himself to be acknowledged king in his stead. His reign continues

only six months.

3580. 494. Ochus. known under the name of Darius Nothus, rids himself of Sogdianus, and succeeds him.

The Athenians, under Nicias, make themselves mas-

ters of Cythera.

Thucytides is banished by the Athenians, whose army he commanded, for having suffered Amphipoles to be taken.

Polygnotus, famed particularly for his painting in the portico called Househ at Athens, in which he represent-

ed the principal events of the Trojan war.

3583. 421. Treaty of peace concluded, by the application of Nicias, between the Lacedaemonians and Athenians in the tenth year from the beginning of the Lacedaemonian war. Alcibiades, by a stratagem, occasions its being broken the following year.

3584. 420. The banishment of Hyperbolus puts an end to the Os-

traciem.

3588. 416. Alcibiades engages the Athenians to assist the people

of Egesta against the Syracusans.

3589. 415. Alcibiades, one of the generals sent to Sicily by the Athenians, is recalled to Athens, to answer accusations against him. He flies to Sparts, and is condemned for contumacy.

3590. 414. Pauthnes, governor of Syria, revolts against Darius.

The Egyptians do the same, and choose Amyrtaeus, for

their king, who reigns six years.

3593. 411. Aleibiades, to avoid the envy, which his great actions had drawn upon him at Sparta, throws himself into the arms of Tissaphernes, one of the king of Persia's satraps. The Lacedaemonians, by the help of Tissaphernes, consinds a treaty of Elliques with the king of Pensia's

nes, conclude a treaty of alliance with the king of Persia.

3595. 309. Alcib ades is recalled to Athena. His return occasions
the abolition of the Four Hundred, who had been invest.

ed with supreme authority.

Darius gives Cyrus, his youngest son, the government

in chief of all the provinces of Asia Minor.

3598. 406. Lysander is placed at the head of the Lacedaemonian armies. He defeats the Athenians near Ephesus. In consequence of that defeat Alcibiades is deposed, and ten generals are nominated to succeed him.

S799. 405. Callieratidas is invested with the command of the army in the room of Lysander, from whom the Lacedac-monians had taken it. He is killed in a sea-fight near the Arginosse.

PERSIANS AND GREEKS.

Lysander is restored to the command of the Lacedae-3599. 405. monian army. He gains a famous victory over the Athenians at Ægospotamos.

Conon, who commanded the Athenian forces, retires

after his defeat to Evagoras, king of Cyprus.

3500. 401. Lysander makes himself master of Athens, changes the form of the government, and establishes thirty Archons, commonly called the thirty Tyrants.

End of the Peloponnesian war

Death of Darius Nothus. Arsaces, his son, succeeds him, and takes the name of Artaxerxes Mnemon.

Cyrus the younger intends to assassinate his brother Artaxerxes. His design being discovered, he is sent back to the maritime provinces, of which he was governor.

*\$*601. **403**. Interview of Cyrus the Younger and Lysander at Sardia.

Thrasybulus expels the tyrants of Athens, and re-es-

tablishes its liberty.

Cyrus the Younger prepares for a war with his bro-3602. 402. ther Artaxerzes.

Defeat and death of Cyrus the Younger at Cunaxa, 3603. 401. followed by the retreat of the Ten Thousand. Death of Socratea.

Lacedaemon declares war against Tissaphernes and 3604. 400. Pharmabasus.

3606. 396. Beginning of Amyntas, king of Macedonia, father of Philip.

3607. 397. -Agesilaus is elected king of Sparta. The year following he goes into Africa, to the aid of the Greeks settled

Lysander quarrels with Agesilaus, and undertakes to **8609. 395.** change the order of the succession to the throne. The army of Tissaphernes is defeated near Sardis by

Agesilaus.

Thebes, Argos, and Corinth, enter into a league against 3610. **394.** Lacedaemon, at the solicitation of the Persians. Athens enters into the same league soon after. Agenilaus is recalled by the Ephori to the assistance of his country.

The fleet of the Lacedaemonians is defeated near Cnidos by Pharnabasus, and Conon the Athenian, who commanded that of the Persians and Greeks. Agesilaus defeats the Thebans almost at the same time in the plains of Coronaca.

Conon rebuilds the walls of Athens.

A peace disgraceful to the Greeks concluded with the S617. 387. Persians by Antalcidas the Lacedaemonian.

3618, 386. Artaxerxes attacks Evagoras, king of Cyprus, with all his forces, and gains a signal victory over him.

It is followed by the siege of Salarais, which is terminated by a treaty of peace.

A.M. A.C. PERSIANS AND GREEKS.

3620. 384. Expedition of Artaxerxes against the Cadmians. Birth of Aristotle, founder of the Peripatetses.

The Lacedaemonians declare war against the city of 3621. 381 Olynthus.

Birth of Philip, king of Macedon.

3622, 382, Phaebidas, on his way to the siege of Olynthus, at the head of part of the army of the Lacedaemonians, makes himself master of the citadel of Thebes. Birth of Demosthenes.

3626, 378, Pelopidas, at the head of the rest of the exiles. kills the tyrants of Thebes, and retakes the citadel.

3627. 377. Artaxerxes Mnemon undertakes to reduce Egypt, which had thrown off his yoke for some years. He employs above two years in making preparations for that war.

3629. 375. Death of Amyntas, king of Macedonia. his eldest son, succeeds him. He reigns only two years. Perdices next ascends the throne, and reigns fourteen years.

3630, 374, Death of Evagoras, king of Cyprus. Nicocles his son

succeeds him.

Battle of Leuetra, in which the Thebans under Epa-3634. 370. minondas, and Pelopidas, defeat the Lacedaemonians.

Expedition of Pelopidas against Alexander, tyrant of 3635. 369. Pherae. He goes to Macedonia to terminate the differences between Perdiccas and Ptolemy, son of Amyntas, concerning the crown. He carries Philip with him to Thebes as an hostage. He is killed in a battle which he fights with the tyrant of Pherae.

3641, 363, Battle of Mantinaea. Epaminondas is killed in it. after having secured the victory to the Thebana.

The Lacedaemonians send Agesilans to aid Tachos, 3642. 362. king of Egypt, against Artaxerxes. He dethrones Ta. chos, and gives the crown to Nectanebus. He dies on his return from that expedition. Death of Artaxerxes Mnemon. Ochus his son suc-

ceeds him. 3644, 360. Philip ascends the throne of Macedonia. He makes

a captious peace with the Athenians,

The history of the Cappadocians begins at this time, the chronology of whose kings I shall give after that of Alexander's successors. I shall annex to it that of the Parthians and the kings of Pontus.

War of the allies with the Athenians. It continued 3646. 358. three years.

Philip besieges and takes Amphipolis.

Revolt of Artabasus against Ochus king of Persia. 3648. 356.

Birth of Alexander the Great.

3649. 355. Demosthenes appears in public for the first time, and encourages the Athenians, who were alarmed by the

PERSIANS AND GREEKS

preparations for war which the king of Persia was make

3649. 355. Beginning of the sacred war.

8650. 854. Death of Mausolus, king of Caria.

Philip makes himself master of the city of Methone. 3651. 353.

365**2. 35**2. Arternicia, widow of Massocius, to whom she had sucscedes, takes Rhodes. Philip attempts in vain to seize Thermopyle.

3653, 351, Successful expedition of Ochus against Phonisia, Cy-

prus, and afterwards Egypt. 365**4. 350**. Nectanehus, the last king of Egypt of the Egyptian race, is obliged to fly into Ethiopia, from whence he never returns.

365**6. 348.** Death of Plato.

Philip makes himself master of Olynthus. 3658. 346. Philip seizes Thermopylae and Phosis. He causes himself to be admitted into the number of the Amphictyons

3662. 342. Oration of Demosthenes concerning the Chersonesus, in favour of Diopithus,

3665. **3**39. The Athenians send aid under Phoeion to the cities of Perinthus and Byzantium, besieged by Philip. That prince is obliged to raise the siege.

3666_ 338_ Philip is declared generalissimo of the Greeks in the council of the Amphictyons. He makes himself master of Elataca.

Battle of Cheronaea, wherein Philip defeats the Ather nisas and the Thebans, who had entered into a league against him.

Ochus, king of Persia, is poisoned by Bagoss his favourite. Arses, his son, succeeds him, and reigns only three years.

8667. **337**. Philip causes himself to be declared general of the she Greeks against the Persians. The same year he repudiates his wife Olympias. His son Alexander attends her into Epirus from whense he goes to Illyria.

3668. 336. Philip's death Alexander, his son, then twenty years of age, succeeds him.

Areca, king of Persia, is assassinated by Bagoas. Darius Codomanus succeeds him.

3669. 235. Thebes taken and destroyed by Alexander. causes himself to be declared generalissimo of the Greeks against the Persians in a diet assembled at Corinth.

3670. 334. Alexander sets out for Persia. Battle of the Granicus, followed with the conquest of

almost all Asia Minor. 3671. 333. Alexander is seized at Tarsus with a dangerous illness, from having bathed in the river Cydnus. He is oured in a few days.

Battle of Louis. 3672. 339. Alexander makes himself master of Tyre, after a siege of seven months.

PERSIANS AND GREEKS.

Apelles, one of the most famous painters of antiquity. **3672. 332.** Aristides and Protegenes were his contemporaries. Alexander goes to Jerusalem. He makes himself mas-

ter of Gaza, and soon after of all Egypt. He went after this conquest to the temple of Jupiter Ammon, and at his return built the city of Alexandria.

Battle of Arbela. It is followed with the taking of 3673, 331,

Arbela, Babylon, Susa, and Persepolis. Darlus is seized and laden with chains by Bessus, and 3674. 530. soon after assussinated. His death puts an end to the Persian empire, which had subsisted two hundred and six years from its foundation under Cyrus the Great.

The Lacedaemonians revolt against the Macedonians. Antipater defeats them in a battle, wherein Agis their

king is killed.

Thalestris, queen of the Amazons, comes to see Alex-

ander at Zadracarta.

Philotas and Parmenio, his father, suspected of having conspired with others against Alexander, are put to death.

Bessus is brought to Alexander, and soor after put to 3675. 329.

Alexander, after having subdued the Sogdisms and Bactrians, builds a city upon the Iaxartes, to which he gives his name.

Embassy of the Scythians to Alexander, followed by a

victory gained by him over that people.

Lysippus of Sieyon, a famous sculptor, flourished about this time.

Alexander makes himself master of the rocky emi-3676. 328. nence of Oxus.

Clutus killed by Alexander at a feast in Maracanda. The death of Callisthenes happens soon after.

Alexander marries Roxans, the daughter of Oxyartes. Alexander's entrance into India. He gains a great 3677. 327.

victory over Porus in passing the Hydrapes. On the remonstrances of his army, Alexander deter-3678. 326. mines to march back.

The city of Oxydracae taken. Alexander in great danger there.

3679. 325.

. Alexander's marriage with Statira, the eldest daughter of Darius. Revolt of Harpalus, whom Alexander had made go-

vernor of Babylon.

Demosthenes is banished for having received presents, and suffered himself to be corrupted by Harpalus.

Death of Hephaestion at Ecbatana. 3680. 324. Menander, the inventor of the New Comedy, lived about this time.

Alexander, on his return to Babylon, dies there, at the 3681. 323. age of two and thirty years and eight months. Aridaeus, that prince's natural brother, is declared king in his

PERSIANS AND GREEKS.

stead. The regency of the kingdom is given to Perdiceas.

The generals divide the provinces amongst themselves. From this division commences the aera of the empire of the Lagides in Egypt.

The Athenians revolt, and engage the states of Greece to enter into a league with them. Demosthenes is re-

called from bunishment.

3682. 322. Antipater is besieged in Lamia by the Athenians, and is forced to surrender by capitulation. He soon after seizes Athens, and puts a garrison into it.

Death of Demosthenes,

S683. 321. Alexander's magnificent for

Alexander's magnificent funeral.
 Perdiceas puts Eumenes into possession of Cappadocia.
 League of Ptolemy, Craterus, Antipater, and Antigonas, against Perdiceas and Eumenes.

Death of Craterus.

Unfortunate end of Perdiceas in Egypt. Antipater succeeds him in the regency of the empire.

3634. 320. Eumenes, defeated by Antigonus, shuts himself up in the eastle of Nora, where he sustains a siege of a year.

Ptolemy makes himself master of Jerusslem.

Ness. 319. Death of Antipater. Polysperchon succeeds him.

Phoeion's condemnation and death at Athens.

Cassander, son of Antipater, seizes Athens, and set-

ties Demetrius Phalereus there to govern the republic.
3687. 317. Ulympias, the mother of Alexander, causes Aridaeus, and Eurydice his wife, to be murdered; she herself is

soon after put to death by order of Cassander.

9. 315. Eumenes is delivered up to Antigonus by his own sol-

diers and put to death.

8691. 813. Antigonus takes Tyre after a siege of fifteen months.

Demetrius his son, surnamed Poliorcetes, begins to distinguish himself.

3692. 312. Zeno institutes the sect of the Stoics at Athens.

3693. 311. Seleucus makes himself master of Babylon, and the neighbouring provinces.

At this expedition of Seleucus against Babylon begins the famous zera of the Seleucidae, called by the Jews the aera of contracts.

Ptolemy retires into Egypt, and carries a great number of the inhabitants of Phonicia and Judaea thither along with him.

Cassander causes Roxana, and her son blexander, to be put to death.

3695. 309. Polyspherehon put Hercules, the son of Alexanders and his mother, Berenice, to death.

\$696. 308. Ophellas, governor of Libya, revolts against Ptolemy. Demetrins Poliorcetes makes himself master of Athena, and re-establishes the democratical government. The same year he makes himself master of Salamis, and the whole island of Cyprus.

PERSIANS AND GREEKS.

Demetrins Phalereus, who commanded at Athens, re-3**898.** 306. tires to Thebes. The Athenians throw down his statues, and condemn him to death.

Antagonus, and his son Demetrius, assume the title of The other princes follow their example, and do

the same.

Antigonus, to make the most of his son's victory in -3698, 305. Cyprus, undertakes to deprive Ptolemy of Egypt. That expedition does not succeed.

Prolemy the astronomer fixes the beginning of the reign of Ptolemy, king of Egypt, on the 7th of Novem-

ber of this year.

Demetrius Poliorestes forms the siege of Rhodes 3700. 304. which he is forced to raise a year after.

Protogenes the celebrated painter was in the city dur-

ing the time that it was besieged by Demetrius.

5701, 303. The Rhodians employ the money raised by the sale of the machines, which Demetrius had used in the siege of their city, and had given them as a present, in erecting the famous Colossus, called the Colossus of Rhodes.

Demotrius Poliorectes is declared general of all the Greeks bythe states of Greece assembledat the Inthmus.

3702. 302. Ptolemy, Seleucus, Cassander, and Lysimachus, enter into a league against Antigonus, and Demetrius, his son. Battle of Ipsue, wherein Antigonus is defeated. It is followed by the division of the empire of Alexander amonest the four allied princes.

Arcesilas, founder of the Middle Academy.

There is such a connexion between the events which happened in the four empires formed out of Alexan der's, that it is impossible to separate them. For which reason I shall dispose them all in one column according to the plan I have followed in treating them in the body of my history. I shall first give a talk that contains only the kings that reigned in each of those kingdoms.

Macedonia. 'Thrace & Bith Esphi. Ptolemy Euria. Seleucua Cassander-. **\$701. \$00.** 3707. 397. Beter. Nicator-Philip and

Alexander, the sons of Cassander, dispute the kingdom, and possess it almost three Years. Demetrius

Lymmachw

3710. 294. Poliercetes.

3717. **287.** 3719. 285. Ptolemy Pyrrhus and Lysimachus.

		CHRONO	GOGICAL IABLE	s. 25 5
4. 8	f. A.(B. Egypt. Syri Philadelphus	ia. Macedonia.	Thrace & Bithyn,
572	3. 281		Scleuous oator a very short time.	y is killed in a
		Egypt.	Syria.	Macedonia.
3726	. 280. . 278. . 276.		Antiochus Soter.	Ptolemy Ceraunus. His brother Meleager reigned some time after him. Sosthenes. Antigonus. Gonatas.
3749	261.		Antiochus Theos.	Gouatas.
	246.		Selevens Callini-	
			OL.	
1762 .	242			Demetrius, son of Antige- nus Gonstas.
3772	. 232	٠.		Antigonus Doson.
3778,	226.	_	Seleveus Ceraunus.	
3781.	223.		Antiochus the Gres	ıt.
878 3.	221.	Ptolemy Phi-		
		lopator.	•	
	290.			Philip.
S100.	204.	Ptolemy Epi-		
0017		phanes.	0.1	
36 <u>17.</u>	1 87. 1 8 0.	Ptolemy Phi- lometor.	Seleucus Philopator	
3825.	179.	•		Perseus, the
		•	•	last king of the Macedonians.
		Egypt.	<i>S</i> 5	rria.
3829 .	175.	•	Antiochus Epi	iphanes.
3840.		*	Antiochus Eu	
	162.		Demetrius So	
S85 4.			Alexander Ba	
38 59.	145.	Ptolemy Physcor		
386Q.	144.	•	Antiochus Ti	neos, the son of
			Bala, seizes	
				the same soon af-
			ter.	
¥.	L. V I	II.	\$	

206	CHRONOLOG	ICAL TABLE.
A.M. A.C 3864. 140.		Syria. Antiochus Sidetes puts Try- phon to death, aud reigns in his
3877. 127.		Zebina succeeds Demetrius Nicator.
3880, 194	•	Seleucus, the son of Nicator. Antiochus Grypus.
3887. 117. 3890. 114		Antiochus the Cyzicenian di- vides the kingdom with Gry- pus.
3897. 107		
	of Lathyrus.	C.) of C
3907. 97		Seleucus, son of Grypus. Antiochus Eusebes.
3911. 93.		Antiochus, second son of Grypus.
3912. 92.		Philip. third son of Grypus.
39 13. 91.	•	Demetrius Eucheres, fourth son
3914. 90.		of Grypus.
3919. \$5.		Antiochus Dionysius, fifth son of Grypus.
•	·	The four last named kings reigned successively with Eusebes.
3 92 1. 8 3.	•	Tigranes, during fourteen
3923. 81.	Alexander II. son o	£*
3935. 69.		Antiochus Asiaticus.
3939. 65.	Ptolemy Auletes.	
3946. 58.	Berenice, the elde	et
	daughter of Auletes,	•
	reigns some time in h	ie .
	stead after which the	

stead, after which that prince is restored.

3953. 51. Cleopatra reigns at first with her eldest brother, then with Ptolemy, her youngest brother, and at last alone.

SUCCESSORS OF ALEXANDER.

Seleucus, king of Syria, builds Autioch. 3704. 300. Athens refuses to receive Demetrius Poliorcetes.

Death of Cassander, king of Macedon. Philip his son 3707, 297, succeeds him. He does not reign one year, and is succeeded by Alexander, his brother. About this time ceeded by Alexander, his brother. Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, espouses Antigone, of the house of Ptolemy, and returns into his dominions, out of which he had been driven by the Molossi.

Demetrius Poliorcetes retakes Athens. Lysimachus and Ptolerny, almost at the same time, deprive him of all he possessed.

Demetrius puts to death Alexander, king of Macedo-3710, 294.

5724. 280.

SUCCESSORS OF ALEXANDER.

nia, who had called him in to his aid, and seizes his dominions, where he reigns seven years.

3711. 293. Foundation of the city of Seleucia by Seleucus.

3717. 987. Pyrrbus and Lysimachus take Macedonia from Demetrius. The latter dies miserably the year following in prison.

4713. 285. Ptolemy Soter, king of Egypt resigns the throne to his son Ptolemy Philadelphus.

Foundation of the kingdom of Pergamus by Philete-

rus.

\$721. 285. Demetrius Phalereus is shut up in a fort by order of

Philadelphus, and kills himself there.

3722, 982. Seleucus Nicator, king of Syria, declares war against Lysimachus, king of Macedonia.

3733. 283. Lysimsedus is killed in a battle in Phrygia. Seleucus enters Maseedonia to take possession of the kingdom. He is assassinated there by Ceraunus. Antiochus Soter, his son succeeds him in the kingdom of Syria.

self, puts the two children of Lysimachus by Arsinoe to death, and banishes her into Samothracia.

The republic of the Achaeans resumes its ancient form,

Ceraunus, to secure the kingdom of Macedonia to him-

which it had lost under Philip and Alexander,
Pyrrhus, king of Enivos, called in by the Tare

Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, called in by the Tarentines, goes to Italy to make war against the Romans. He gives them battle for the first time near Heraelea, where the advantage is entirely on his side. He is again successful in a second battle fought the year following.

5725. 279. Irruption of the Gauls into Macedonia. Caraunus gives them battle, in which he is killed. Meleager his brother succeeds him.

\$726. 278. Pyrrhus abandons Italy, and goes to Sicily, which he conquers.

Sosthenes drives the Gauls out of Macedonia. He is made king there, and reigns two years.

Attempt of the Gauls upon the temple of Delphos.

Ptolemy Philadelphus, king of Egypt, causes the Holy

Scriptures to be translated into Greek.

3723. 276. Death of Southenes. Antigonus Gonatas, son of Poliorectes, who reigned afterwards for ten yearsin Greece makes himself king of Macedonia in his room. Antiochus. king of Syria, disputes the possession of it with him. Their difference terminates by the marriage of Antigonus with Phila, the daughter of Stratonice and Seleusus.

379. 275. Antiochus defeats the Gauls in a bloody battle, and delivers the country from their oppressions. By this vio-

tory he acquires the name of Soter.

330. 274. Pyrrhus returns into Italy, and is defeated by the Romans. He goes to Macedonia, where he attacks and defeats Antigonus.

Ptolemy Philadelphus, in consequence of the reputation of the Romans, sends an embassy to them to demand

their amity.

3741. 263.

A.M. A.C. SUCCESSORS OF ALEXANDER.

5782. 272. Pyrrhus undertakes the siege of Sparta, and cannot reduce it. He is killed the next year at the siege of Argos.

5736. 268. Antigonus Gonatas makes himself master of Athreas, which had entered into a league with the Lasedaemonians against him.

3739. 265. Abantidas maket himself tyrant of Sieyon, after having put Clinias, its governor, to death.

Magas, governor of Cyrenaica and Libya, revolts against

Ptolemy Philadelphus.

Death of Philadelphus, king and founder of Pergamus.

Eumenes, his nephew, succeeds him.

3743. 261. Antiochus Soter, king of Syria, sauses his son Antiochus Soter, king of Hadise soon after

chus to be proclaimed king. He dies soon after.

Berosus of Babylos, the historian, lived about this time.

Accommodation between Magas and Ptolemy Phila-

3746. 25s. Assommodation between Magas and Ptolemy Philadelphus.
3749. 255. War between Antiochus, king of Syria, and Ptolemy

Philadelphus.

3752, 252. Aratus, the son of Clinias, delivers Sievon from tyranny, and unites it with the Achaean league.

3754. 250. Arsaces revolts against Agathoeles, governor for Antiochus in the country of the Parthians. About the same time Theodorus, governor of Bactrians, revolts and causes himself to be declared king of that province.

3755. 249. Treaty of peace between Antiochus and Ptolemy Philadelphus, which puts an end to the war. By one of the conditions of that treaty, Antiochus repudiates Laodice, and marries Berenise. Ptolemy's daughter.

3756. 248. Agis king of Sparta, endeavours to revive the ancient institutions of Lyourgus. Leonidas, his colleague, is deposed for refusing to soasent to it. Cleombrotus, his sonin law, reigns in his stead.

3757. 247. Death of Ptolemy Philadelphus, king of Egypt. Ptolemy Evergetes, his son, succeeds him.

Apolionius of Rhodes, author of a poem upon the expedition of the Argonauts.

3758. 246. Antiochus, surnamed Theos, king of Syria, is poisoned by his wife Laodice. She afterwards causes her son Seleucus Callinicus to be declared king.

Berenice, and her son by Antiochus, are assasinated by Laodice.

Ptolemy Evergetes, Berenice's brother, undertakes to revenge her death. He makes himself master of great part of Syria.

3760. 244. The cities of Smyrna and Magnesia enter into an alliance to aid the king of Syria against Ptolemy Evergetes. Aratus makes himself master of the citadel of Corinth. Leonidas is restored at Sparta, Cleombrotus sent into

banishment, and Agis put to death.

SUCCESSORS OF ALEXANDER.

- 5762...242. Death of Antigonus Gonatas, king of Macedonia. Demetrius, his son, succeeds him.
- 3762. 242. Seleccus, king of Syria, enters into a war with Antiochus Hierax, his brother. The latter has the advantage in a battle near Ancyra, in Galatia.
- 3763. 241. Death of Eumenes, king Pergamus. Attalus, his cousin-german, succeeds him.
- 3765. 239. Eratosthenes the Cyrenian, is made librarian to Ptolemy Evergetes.
- S771. 283. Joseph, nephew of the high-priest Onias, is sent ambassador to Ptolemy Evergetes.
- 5772. 232. Death of Demetrius king of Macedonia. Antigonus, guardian of Philip, son of Demetrius, succeeds him.
- Polycletus of Sieyon, a famous sculptor.

 3774. 230. Seleueus, king of Syria, is defeated and taken prisoner
- by Arsaces, king of the Parthians.

 S776. 228. Cleomenes, king of Sparta, gains a great victory over the Achaeans and Aratus.
- 3778. 226. Seleucus Callinious, king of Syris, dies amongst the Parthians, of a fall from a horse. Seleucus Ceraunus, his eldest son, succeeds him.
 - Antiochus Hierax is assassinated by thieves, on leaving Egypt.
 - Aratus defeats Aristippus, tyrant of Argos. He prevails upon Lysiades, tyrant of Megalopolis, to renounce the tyranny, and make his city enter into the Achaean league.
- 3779. 225. The Romans send a famous embassy into Greece, to impart to the Greeks the treaty they had lately concluded with the Illyrians. The Corinthians declare by a public decree, that they shall be admitted to a share in the celebration of the Isthmian games. The Athenians also grant them the freedom of Athens.
- 3779. 225. Antigonus, king of Macedonia, by the management of Aratus, is called in to aid the Achaeans against the Lacedaemonians.
- 3781. 223. Cleomenes, king of Sparta, takes Megalopolis.
 Battle of Selacia, followed with the taking of Sparta
 by Antigonus.
 - Death of Seleucus Ceraunus, king of Syria. Antiochus his hrother, surpamed the Great, succeeds him.
- 3782. 222. The Colossus of Rhodes is thrown down by a great earthquake.
- 3783, 221. Death of Ptolemy Evergetes, king of Egypt. Ptolemy Philopator succeeds him.

 The Ætolians gain a great victory at Caphyae over the
- Achaeans.

 Achaeans.

 Antiochus reduces Molon and Alexander, who had revolted against him two years before, the first in Me
 - dia, the second in Persia.

 Death of Antigonus, king of Macedonia. Philip, the son of Demetrius, succeeds him.
 - Cleomenes, king of Sparta, dies in Egypt. The La-

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210

SUCCESSORS OF ALEXANDER. A.M. A.C.

cedaemonians elect Agenipolis and Lycurgus to success

him. War of the allies with the Ætolians, in favour of the

Achaeans. 3785. 219. Hermias, prime minister of Antiochus, is put to death

by that prince's orders. Battle of Raphia between Ptolemy, king of Egypt, 3787. 217.

and Antiochus, king of Syria. Treaty of peace between Philip, king of Macedonia, and the Achaeans on one side, and the Ætolians on the other, which puts an end to the war of the affices.

3788, 216. Antiochus besieges Achaeus, who had revolted, in Sardia, and, after a siege of two years, he is delivered

up by the treachery of a Cretan.

Hau bal's all ance with Philip, king of Macedonia. **_ 3789. 215.** Philip receives a considerable blow from the Remans

at the siege of Apollonia. 3790. 214.

Carneades, founder of the New Academy. Antiochus undertakes to reduce the provinces which 3792. 212. had thrown off the yoke of the Syrian empire, and effects it in the space of seven years.

3793. 211. Alliance of the Ætohans with the Romans. Attalus, king of Pergamus, enters into it. The Lacedaemonians

accede to it some short time after.

Famous battle between Philip king of Macedonia, and 5796. 208. the Ætolians near Elis. Philopoemen distinguishes himself in it.

3798, 206, Battle of Mantinaca, wherein Philopeemen defeats Machanidas, tyrant of Sparta, who perishes in it. Nabis

is set in his place.

3800. 204. Treaty of peace between Philip and the Romans. All the allies on both sides are included in it. Polybius is said to have been born this year. Death of Ptolemy Philopator, king of Egypt. Ptolemy Epiphanes, at that time only five years old succeeds him.

3801. 203. League between Philip of Macedon and Antiochus,

king of Syria, against the young king of Egypt.

3802. **2**02. Philip, king of Macedonia, is defeated by the Rhodians in a sea-fight off the island of Chios. That prince's cruel treatment of the Cyaneans seems to be properly dated the following year.

3803. 201. Philip besieges and takes Abydos.

3801. 200. The Romans declare war against Philip. P. Sulpitius is appointed to command it. He gains a considerable

victory near the town of Octolophus in Macedonia. 3805. 199. Villicus succeeds Sulpitius in the command of the army against Philip. The year following Flaminium is sent to succeed Villious.

3806, 198, Antiochus, king of Syria, subjects Palestine and Cœlo-

The Achaeans declare for the Romans against Philip. ^^7. 197. Interview of Philip and the consul Flamininus.

A.M. A.C. SUCCESSORS OF ALEXANDER.

Nabia, tyrant of Sparta, declares for the Romans. 3807. 197. The Bootians do the same.

Death of Attalus, king of Pergamus. Eumenes suc-

ceeds him. Battle of Cynoscephale, where the Romans gain a

complete victory over Philip. 5808. 196.

Treaty of peace between Philip and the Romans, which puts an end to the war.

Embassy of the Romans to Antiochus the Great, in order to be assured whether the complaints against him were justly founded.

Conspiracy of Scopes, the Etolian, against Ptolemy Epiphanes, discovered and punished.

3**8**09. 1**95.** Flamininus makes war against Nabis, the tyrant of Sparta.

3913. 191. Philopæmen gains a considerable advantage over Nabis, near Sparta.

The Ætolians resolve to seize Demetrias. Chalcis, and

Sparts, by treachery and stratagem.

Nabis is killed. Philopæmen makes the Lacedaemonians enter into the Achaean league.

Autiochus goes into Greece to the aid of the Ætolians. The Romans declare war against him, and soon after defeat him near the straits of Thermopylae.

3814, 190, Battle of Magnesia, tollowed by a treaty of peace, which puts an end to the war between the Romans and Antiochus, which had subsisted about two years.

The philosopher Panaetius was born about this time. 8815, 129, The Consult Fulvius forces the Ætonans to submit to the Romans. Manlius, his colleague, almost at the same time, subjects all the Gauls in Asia.

The cruel treatment of the Spartans by their exiles, supported by Philopoemen happened this year.

3817. 187. Antiochus the Great, king of Syria. is killed in the

temple of Jupiter Belus, which he had entered in order to plunder it. Selencus Philopator succeeds him.

3821. 183. Philopæmen is taken before Messene, by Dinocrates, and put to death.

3823, 181. Demetrius, son of Philip, king of Macedonia is unjustly accused by his brother Perseus, and put to death.

3894. 18O. Death of Ptolemy Epiphanes, king of Egypt. Ptolemy Philometor succeeds him.

\$825, 179, Death of Philip, king of Macedonia. Perseus his son succeeds him.

5829. 175. Seleucus Philopator, king of Syria, is poisoned by Heliodorus, whom he had sent a little before to take Jerusalem. He is succeeded by Antiochus Epiphanes.

3830, 174. Antiochus Epiphanes causes Onias, the high-priest of Jerusalem, to be deposed, and sets Jason in his place.

War between Antiochus and Ptolemy Philometor. 3833, 171. The Romans declare war against Perseus. prince has some advantage in the first battle near f river Peneus.

SUCCESSORS OF ALEXANDER.

3884 170. Antiochus Epiphanes makes himself master of all Egypt. He marches afterwards to Jerusalem, where he commits unbeard-of cruelties

3835. 169. The Alexandriaus, in the room of Philometor, who had fallen into the hands of Antiochus, make Ptolemy Evergetes, his younger brother, king.

Philometor is set at liberty the same year, and unites with his brother. That union induces Antiochus to renew

the war. Paulus Æmilius is charged with the Macedonian war 3836. 168. against Perseus. He gains a famous victory over that prince near Pydna, which puts an end to the kingdom of Macedonia. It was not reduced, however, into a province of the Roman empire till twenty years after.

The practor Anicius subjects Illy ria in thirty days. Popilius, one of the ambassadors sent by the Romans

into Egypt, obliges Antiochus to quit it, and come to an accommodation with the two brothers.

5836, 168, Antiochus, exasperated at what had happened in Egypt, turns his rage against the Jews, and sends Apollonius to Jerusalem.

The same year he publishes a decree to oblige all nations in subjection to him to renounce their own religion, and conform to his. This law occasions a cruel persecution amongst the Jews.

3837. 167. Antiochus goes in person to Jerusalem, to see his orders put in execution. The martyrdom of the Maccabees, and the death of Eleazar, happened at that time.

Paulus Æmilius abandons the cities of Epirus to be plundered by his army, for having taken Perseus's part. The Achaeans, suspected of having favoured that prince, are sent to Rome, to give an account of their conduct. The senate banish them into different towns of Italy, from whence they are not suffered to return home till seventeen year after. Polybius was of this number.

Prusias, king of Bithynia, goes to Rome. Eumenes. 3838. 166. king of Pergamus, is not permitted to enter it.

Death of Mattathias. Judas, his son, succeeds him, and gains many victories over the generals of Antiochus.

Antiochus Epiphanes, is repulaed before Elymais, where he intended to plunder the temple. He marches towards Judaea, with design to exterminate the Jews. The hand of God strikes him on the way, and he dies in the most exquisite torments. Antiochus Eupator, his son, succeeds him.

\$841. 163. Antiochus Eupator marches against Jerusalem. He is soon after obliged to return into Syria, in order to expel Philip of Antioch, who had made himself master of his capital.

6842, 162, Quarrel between Philometor, king of Egypt, and Physicon his brother, which does not terminate till after the experation of five years. Octavius, ambassador for the Romans in Syria, is as-

sassinated.

SUCCESSORS OF ALEXANDER

3842. 1642 Demetrius Soter, the son of Seleucus Philopator, files from Rome, where he had been kept as an host ge, to Syria, where he causes Antiochus Eupator to be put to death, and seizes the throne.

3345. 161. Death of Judas Maccabaeus.

- 3844. 160. Demetrius is acknowledged king of Syria by the Romana.
- 3345. 159. Death of Eumenes, king of Pergamus. Attalus Philometor succeeds him.

3848. 156. War between Attalus and Prus'as.

5851. 153. Alexander Bala pretends himself the son of Antiochus Epiphanes and in that qual tv attempts to cause himself to be acknowledged king of Syria.

352. 152. Andr sous of Adramyttum pretends himself the son of Perseus, and undertakes to cause himself to be declared king of Macedonia. He is conquered, taken and sent to Rome by Metellus.

3354. 150. Demetrius Soter is killed in a battle bet een h m and Alexander Bala. His death leaves the latter in possession of the empire of Syria.

3856. 148. Macedon's is reduced into a province of the Roman

empire.

387. 147. Troubles in Achaia promoted by Diagus and Critolaus. The commissioners sent thither by the Romans are insulted.

5858. 146. Metellus goes to Achaia, where he gains several advantages over the Achaeans Mumm us succeeds him, and, after a great battle near Leucopetra, takes Corinth and entirely demokshes it.

Greece is reduced into a Roman province under the

name of the province of Achaia.

The sequel of the history of the kings of Syria is very perplexed; for which reason I shall separate it from that of the Egyptians, in order to complete its chronology.

3859. 145. Demetrius Ni3860. 144. eator, son of Demetrius Soter, demetrius Soter, defeats Alexander of Bala, supported his brother, sucBala, and ascends by Tryphon,
the throne. makes himself

master of part of the kingdom. Tryphon gets Jonathan into his

SR3. 141. Demetrius hands, and puts marches against him to death at the Parthians.— Ptolemais. The After some small year following he

Syria.

Egypt.

advantages he is taken prisoner.

murders his pupil Antiochus, and seizes the king-

3864. 140. 3866, 138,

of Syria. Antiochus Sidetes, the second

Soter, marries Cleopatra, the Demetrius Nica ceeds him.

Death of Attalus son of Demetrius king of Pergamus. Attalus his nephew surnamed wife of his brother Philometor, suc-

3868, 136,

tor : and after hav- reigns five years. ing put Tryphon to death, he is de- Physcon at Alexclared king him-

The cruelties of andria oblige most of the inhabitants

3869. 135.

Antiochus Side- to quit the place. tes besieges John Hyrcanus in Jerurusalem, and takes

the city by capitulation.

3871. 133. 3873. 131.

Antiochus marches against Pergamus, at his the Parthians, and death leaves his gains many advantages over them. They send Andronicus seizes back Demetrius them.)

(Attalus Philometor, king of dominions to the Roman people.

the year following.

Demetrius Ni-3874. 130. cator reigns again in Syria.

The consul Perpenna defeats Andronicus, and sends him to Home. The kingdom of Pergamus is reduced the year following into a Roman province by Manius Āguilius.

Physcon repudiates Cleopatra, his first wife, and marries her daughter of the same name. He is soon after obliged to fly, and the Alexandrians give the government to Cleopatra whom he had re-

Physcon re-ascends the throne of Egypt.

pudiated.

2277. 127. Demetrius is killed by Alexander Zebina, who

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE. 215 Egypt. A.M. A.C. Syria. takes his place, and causes himself to be acknowledged king of Syria. **3880**. 124. Seleucus V. eld-Zebina is de-Physeon 3882. 122. est son of Demetrius Nicator, is feated by Grypus, his daughter in declared king, and and dies soon after. marriage to Grysoon after killed pus, king of Syria. by Cleopatra. Autiochus Grypus succeeds him. **6884**. 120. Cleopatra at-3887. 117. tempts to poison, Death of Phys. Antiochus, the con. Ptolemy La-3890. 114. Grypus, and is Cyzicenian, son of thyrus succeeds poisoned herself. Cleopatra and An- him. Cleopatra, tiochus Sedetes, his mother, obliges takes arms against him to repudiate Grypus. He has Cleopatra, his eldthe worst in the est sister, and to beginning ; but marry Selene, his two years after youngest. 3891. 119. obliges his brother Cleopatra, queen to divide the king- of Egypt, gives the dom of Syria with kingdom of Cyprus to Alexander, her youngest son. Cleopatra drives **\$897.** 107. Lathyrus out of Egypt, and places, his brother Alexander, upon the throne. Signal victory of ·3900. 104. Lathyrus over Alexander, king of the Jews, upon the banks of the Jordan. Cleopatra forces 3901. 103. Lathyrus to raise the siege of Ptolemais, and takes that city herself. 3908, 101, Cleopatra takes 3907. 97. Death of Gryher daughter Se-94. pus. Seleucus his Antiochus the lene from Lathyson succeeds him. Cyzicenian is de-rus, and makes Seleucus is de- feated, and put to her marry Antio-3911. 93. feated by Eusebes, death. chus the Cyziec. and burnt in Mon-Antiochus Eusesucatia. 3912. 92. Antiochus, bro-bes, the son of the

Syria.

Egypt.

ther of Seleucus, Cyzicenian, causes and second son of hamself to be de-Grypus, assumes clared king. the diadem. He marres Selene, is presently after the widow of Grydefeated by Euse- pur. bes, and drowned

in the Orontes. Philip, his bro-**3913. 91**. ther, third son of Grypus, succeeds him.

Demetrius Eu-3914. 90. 89, chares, fourth son-*3*915. of Grypus, is esta-

Alexander kills his mother Cleopatra.

blished king at 3916. 88. Damaseus by the

Eusebes defeat-Alexander is exaid of Lathyrus, ed by Philip and pelled, and dies Demetrus, retires soon after. Lathyrus is re-

Demetrius hav- to the Parth ans. 3919. 85. ing been taken by who re-establish called. the Parth ans, An-him upon the tiochns D.ony sus throne two years the fifth son of after. Grypus, is set upon the throne, and kiled the following year.

3921. 83.

The Syrians. Eusebes takes weary of so many refuge in Cilicia, where he remains

changes, choose 3922, 82. Tigranes, king of concealed. Armenia, for their king. He reigns fourteen years by a viceroy.

Lathyrus ruins Thebes in Egypt, where the rebels whom he had before defeated had taken refuge.

3923, 81,

Death of Lathy. rus. Alexander H. son of Alexander L under the protection of Sylla, is elected king.

-3028, 76. 3935. 69.

Tigranes recals Magdalus, his vicercy in Syria.

Death of Nicomedes, king of Bi-Antiochus Asia- thynia. His kingtieus takes posses- dom is reduced sion of some parts into a Roman prevince; as is Cyrereigns four years. naica the same

year.

Alexander is **393**9. 65. Pompey deprives Antiochus driven out of E. gypt, Prolemy Asiaticus of his deminions, and re- Auletes, Lathy-

of Syria, and

S.M. A.C.

Syria.

Egypt.

duces Syria into a rus's natural son, Roman province. is set in his place.

Egypt.

- 3946. 58. The Romans depose Ptolemy, king of Cyprus, and seize that island. Cato is charged with that commission. Ptolemy Auletes is obliged to fly from Egypt. Berenice, the eldest of his daughters, is declared queen in his stead.
 - 3949. 55. Gabinius and Antony restore Auletes to the entire
- possession of his dominions.

 5953. 51. Death of Ptolemy Auletes. He leaves his dominions to his eldest son and daughter, the famous Cleopatra.
- .3956. 48. Pothinus and Achillas, the young king's guardians, dedeprive Cleopatra of her share in the government, and drive her out of Egypt.
- 3957. 47. Death of the king of Egypt. Gaesar places Cleopatra upon the throne with Ptolemy her youngest brother.
- 3961. 43. Cleopatra poisons her brother when he somes of age to share the sovereign authority according to the laws. She afterwards declares for the Roman triumviri.
- 3963. 41. Cleopatra goes to Autony at Tarsus in Cilicia. She gains the ascendant over him, and carries him with her to Alexandria.
- 3971. 33. Antony makes himself master of Armenia, and brings the king prisoner to Cleopatra. Coronation of Cleopatra and all her children.

 Rupture between Caesar and Antony. Cleopatra as-
- companies the latter, who repudiates Octavia at Atheas.

 3973. 31. Cleapatra flies at the battle of Astium. Antony follows
- her, and thereby abandons the vistory to Caesar.

 3974. 30. Antony dies in the arms of Cleopatra.

 Caesar makes himself matter of Alexandria. Cleopatra kills herself. Egypt is reduced into a Roman province.

Cappadocia. Parthian Empire.

Pontus.
The kingdom of

3499. 514.

Pontus was founded by Darius the son of Hystaspes, son of Hystaspes, in the year 3490. Aztabazus was the first king of it. His successors, down to Mithridates, are little known.

Mithridates I. He is commonly considered as the founder of the kingdom of Pontus.

Ariobarzanes. He reigns twenty.

3600. 404.

3638. 366.

\$18		CHRONOL	OGICAL TABL	E.
A.M. 3644 3667.	360 337	. Ariarathes I. was the first king of Cappadocia. He reigned jointly with his brother Holophernes.	•	re. Pentus. six years. Mithridates II. He reigns thirty: five years.
		Ariarathes III. as- cends the throne of Cappadocia af- ter the death of Perdiceas and Eu- menes.		Mithridates III. Reigns thirty-six yeara. The reigns of the three kings
3720. 3754.	250.	Ariamnes. Ariarathes IV.	Areaces I. founder of the Parthian empire. Areaces II. brother of the first. Priapatius. Phrantes I.	who succeed him include the space of an hundred years. The last of them was Mith- ridates IV. great- grandfather of Mith-ridates the Great.
3814.		Ariarathes. V.	1	Tre .c
3819.	185.		'	Pharmaces son of Mithridates IV.
3840.		4 1 32T	Mithridates. I.	
3842. 3873.		Ariarathes VI. surnamed Philo- pator.	Phraates II.	Mithridates V. surnamed Ever-
3875. 3881.		Ariarathes VII.	Artabanus Af-	getes.
3913.		Ariarathes VIII.	ter a very short reisn he is suc-	Mithridates VL surnamed the
		Mithridates, king	ceeded by Mithri-	Great.
		of Pontus, puts him to death, and	dates II. who	Mithridates
		sets his son upon		and makes his so
		the throne. Soon after Ariarathes		king of it.
		IX. takes Cappa-		
		docia from the son		
		of Mithridates, who is presently	•	
		after re-establish-		
3914.	90.	ed by his father. Sylla enters		•
		Cappadocia, drives		
		the son of Mithri- dates out of it, and		
		and adior it, sid		

			213
LM.	A.C.	sets Ariobarzanes	e. Pontus.
5915 .	89.	L upon the throne. Tigrames king of Musschires, Armenia, drives and after him Si- Ariobarzanes out matroces. These	Beginning of the first war between Matheridates and the
5916.	88.	of Cappadocia, two princes reign and reinstates the about twenty years son of Mithridates.	Mithridates causes all the Romans in Asla Minor to be massacred in
		•	one day. Archelaus, one of the generals of Mithridates, seizes Athens and most of
3917.	67.	•	Sylla is charged with the war a-
3918.	86.		gainst Mithridates. He retakes Athens after a long siege. Victory of Sylla
			over the generals of Mithridates near Chaerones. He gains a second battle soon after at
3920.	84.	•	Orchomenus. Treaty of peace between Mithri- dates and Sylla, which terminates
392t.	83,		the war. Mithridates puts
3926.	78.	Syllá obliges	his son to death.
		Mithridates to re- store Cappadota to Ariobarzanes. Tigranes dispossesses him of it a second	Second war be- tween Mithridates and the Romans. It subsists some- thing less than three years.
392 8.		time. After the war with Mithri- dates, Pompey	Mithridates makes an alliance
3929.	7 5.	reinstates Ariobar- zanes. His reign, and the very short one of his son, continue down to about the year 3953.	with Sertorius. Beginning of the third war of Mithridates against the Romans. Luculins and Cotts are placed at the head of the Roman army.
8930.	74.		Cotta is defeated by sea and land,

CHRONO	LOGICAL TABL	E.
Cappadocia.	Parthian Empire	. Pontus.
	•	and forced to shut himself up in Chalcedon. Lucullus goes to his aid. Mithridates forms the siege of Cyzioem. Lucullus obliges him to raise it at the end of two years, and pursues and beats him near the Granicus.
	•	Mithridates de- feated in the plains of Cabirae He retires to Tigranes. Lucullus declares
•	Phrastes III. who assumes the surname of the	war against Ti- granes, and soon after defeats him,

eod.

eclaret Ti-SOOR him, and takes Tigrano. certs, the capital of Armenia. Luculius defeats

Tigranes and Mithridates who had joined their forces near the river Arsamia. Mithridates recovers all his dominions, in conse-

quence of the discontent that takes place in the Roman army.

Pompey is appointed to succeed Lucullus He gains many advantages over Mithridates, and obliges him to fly.

Tigranes surrenders himself to

Pompey. Pompey makes Mithridates, eld- himself master of

est son of Phraates. Caina, in which the treasures of Mith-Orodes. ridates were laid Unfortunate ex- up.

3933. 71. 3934., 70. 8935. 69. **3**936. 68. 3937. 67. 2038. 66.

220 A.M. A.C.

3931, 73.

65.

56.

3939.

Cappadocia.

Parthian Empire.

Pontus.

S950. 54.

*3*955.

Ariobarzanes 51. He is put to Ш. death by Cassius.

Ariarathes X. 3962 3973. 31, M. Autony

out of Cappadosia, tory over the Parand sets Archelaus thians, which rein his place. On trieves the honour the death of that they had lost at prince, which hap- the battle of Carpened in the year rae. of the world 4022, Cappadocia was reduced into man province.

pedition of Crassus against the Parthians.

Ventidius, general of the Rodrives Arierathes mans, gains a vicDeath of Mith-

ridates. Pharnaees his son, whom the army had elected king, submits his person and dominions to the Romans.

Syracuse.

Syracuse is said to have been founded in the year of the world 6295, before

35**61.** 503. Christ 709.

35**20. 484.** Gelon's beginning.

*3*523. **48**1. 3525. 479.

Gelon is elected king of Syrucuse. He reigns five or aix vears.

3532, 472, Hiero I. He reigns eleven years.

Thrasybulus. In a year's 3543. 461. time he is expelled by his

subjects. 3544, 460. The Syracusans enjoy their liberty during sixty years.

35**8**9. **4**15. The \thenians. assisted. 3592, 412. by the people of Segesta un-

Nicias. They are obliged to the Syracusans.

Carthage.

Carthage was founded in the year of the world 3158. before Christ 846.

First treaty between the Carthaginians and Romans. It appears that the Carthaginians had carried their arms into Sicily before this treaty, as they were in possesaion of part of it when it was concluded. But what year they did so is not known.

The Carthaginians make

an alliance with Xerxes.

The Carthaginians, under Amiloar, attack the Greeks settled in Sicily. They are beaten by Gelon.

The Carthaginians send dertake the siege of Syra- troops under Hannibal to aid cuse under their general the people of Segesta against Syracuse.

Carthage,

raise it at the end of two years. The Syracusans pursus and defeat them entire-

3593. 411. **3598. 406.**

Beginning of Dionysius 3595. 409. the Elder. Dionysius, after having

deposed the ancient magistrates of Syracuse, is placed at the head of the new ones, and soon after causes himself to be declared generalissimo.

3600. 404.

Revolt of the Syracusans, against Dionysius upon ac- Carthaginians in Sicily is count of the taking of Gela terminated by a treaty of by the Carthaginians. It is peace with the Syracusans. followed by a treaty of peace between the Carthaginians and Syracusans, by one of the conditions of which Syracuse is to continue in subjection to Dionysius. establishes himself in the

tyranny.

New troubles at Syracuse against Dionysius. He finds means to put an end to them. Dionysius makes great

3605. 399. preparations for a new war 3607. 397.

Massacre of all the Carthaginians in Sicily, followed by a declaration of war, which Dionysius caused to be signified to them by a

with the Carthaginians.

heraki, whom he dispatched to Carthage. Dionysius takes Rhegium

3615. 389.

by capitulation. The next year he breaks the treaty, and makes himself master of it again by force.

2632. 372.

Death of Dionysius the Elder. His son Dionysius the Younger succeeds him. By the advice of Dion, his brother-in-law, he causes Plato to come to his court. Dion, bamshed by the or-

der of Dionysius, retires into Peloponnesus.

Dimysius makes Arete,

Hanqibal and Imileon are sent to conquer Sieily. They open the campaign with the siege of Agrixentum.

The war made by the

Imileon goes to Sicily with an army to carry on the war against Dionysius. It subsists four or five years.

Syracuse.

Carthage.

his sister, the wife of Dion, marry Timocrates, one of his friends. That treatment makes Dion resolve to attack the tyrant with open force.

3644. 360. Dion obliges Dionysius to abandon Syracuse. He sets sail for lay.

3646. 358. Calippus c uses Dion to be assassinated, and makes himself master of Syracuse, where he reigns about thir-

3647. 357. Hipparinus, brother of Dionysius the Younger, drives Calippus out of Syracuse, and stableshes himself in his place for two years.

3654. 350. Dionysius reinstated.

3656, 348. The Syracusans call in Timoleon to their aid.

3657. 347. Dionysius is forced by Timoleon to surrender himsif, and to retire to Corinth.

3658. 346. Timoleon abolishes tyranny at Syracuse, and throughout Sicily, the liber-

3672. 332 throughout Sicily, the liber ty of which he reinstites.

3685. 319. Agathocles makes him-

3724. 280. A Roman legion seizes

Rhegium by treachery.

3729. 275. Hiero and \rtemidorus are made supreme mag. strates

5736. 268. If iero is declared king by the Syracusans.

3741. 263. App.us Claudius goes to Sie ly to aki the Mamertines

3743. 261. Hero, who was at first against him, comes to an accommodation with him, and Second treaty of peace concluded between the Romans and Carthaginians.

The Carthaginians make a new attempt to seize Sicily. They are deteated by Timeleon, who had been sent by the Corinthians to the aid of the Syracusans.

Hanno, citizen of Carthage, forms the design of making himself master of

his country.
Embassy of Type to Carthage, to demand aid against Alexander the Great.

Beginning of the wars between the Carthaginians and Agathoeles in Sicily and Af-

The Carthaginians send aid under Mago to the Romans against Pyrrhus.

Beginning of the first Punic war with the Romans. It subsists twenty-four years

The Romans besiege the Carthaginisms in Agrigentum, and take the city after a siege of seven months.

Syracuse.

Carthage.

A.M. A.C.

3745. 259. makes an alliance with the Romans.

3749. 255.

3750. 254

3755. 249.

3756. 248.

Hiero sends the Carthagi-3763. **24**1. nians aid against the foreign mercenaries

3767. 237.

3776. 228.

3784, 220.

Hiero goes to meet the **3786.** 218. consul Tib: Sempronius, in order to offer him his corvices against the Carthagi-

5787, 217, nians.

3788. 216.

Sea fight between the Romans and the Carthaginians, near the coast of Myle. Sea fight near Ecnomus,

in Sicily.

Regulus in Africa. He is taken prisoner.

Xanthippus comes to the aid of the Carthaginians.

Regulus is sent to Rome to propose the exchange of prisoners. At his return the Carthaginians put him to death with the most cruel torments.

Siege of Lilybaeum by the Romans.

efeat of the Carthaginians near the islands Ægates, followed by a treaty that puts an end to the first Pu-

nic war. War of Libya aminst the foreign mercenaries. It subsist# three years and four

months. The Carthaginians give up Sardinia to the Romans, and engage to pay them twelve hundred talents.

A milear is killed in Spain. Asdrubal, his son-in-law, succeeds him in the command of the army.

Hannibal is sent into Spain upon the demand of his uncle Asdrubal

Asdrubal's death. Hannibal is made general of the army in his stead.

Siege of Saguntum. Beginning of the second Punic war, which subsists seventeen years.

Hannibal enters Italy, and gains the battles of Ticinus and Trebia.

Battle of Thrasymenus. Hannibal deceives Fabius at the defile of Camilinum. Cn. Scipio defeats the

Carthaginiaus in Spain. Battle of Cannae. Han-

Death of Hiero, Hierony-3789. 215.

Syracuse.

Carthage.

mus, his grand son succeeds nibal retires to Capua after him.

Hieronymus abandons the

this battle.

enters into an alliance with Hannibal. He is assassinated soon after. His death 3790. 214, is followed with great com-

party of the Romans, and

Asdrubal is beaten in Spain by the two Scipios.

motions at Syracuse. Marcellus takes Syracuse, 3**792. 212.** after a siege of three years.

Carthage.

3793, 211, The two Scipios are killed in Spain.

The Romans besiege Capua. 3**794.** 210. Hannibal advances to Rome, and besieges it. The Ro-

mana soon after take Capua. 3798. 206. Asdrubal enters Italy. He is defeated by the consul

Livius, whom the other consul Nero had joined. Scipio makes himself master of all Spain. He is made **\$799 . 2**05. consul the year following, and goes to Africa.

3802. 202. Hannibal is recalled to aid his country.

3803. 201. Interview of Hannibal and Scipio in Africa, followed by a bloody battle, in which the Romans gain a complete victory.

3**804.** 200. Treaty of peace between the Carthaginians and Romans, which puts an end to the second Punic war.

Fifty years elapsed between the end of the second and

the beginning of the third Punic war.

5810. 19**4**. Hannibal is made practor of Carthage, and reforms the courts of justice and the finances. After having exercised that office two years, he retires to king Antiochus at Ephesus, whom he advises to carry the war into Italy.

Interview of Hannibal and Scipio at Ephesus. 3813, 191,

3816, 188. Hannibal takes refuge in the island of Crete, to avoid being delivered up to the Romans.

Hannibat abandons the island of Crete, to take refuge 3820. 184.

with Prusigs, king of Bithynia.

3822. 182. Death of Hannibal.

The Romans send commissioners into Africa, to ad-3823 181. judge the differences that had arisen between the Carthaginians and Masinissa.

3848. 156. Second embassy sent by the Romans into Africa to make new inquiries into the differences subsisting between the Carthaginians and Masinissa.

3855, 149, Beginning of the third Punic war. It subsists a little more than four years.

Carthage is besieged by the Romans. 3856. 148.

Scipio the Younger is made consul, and receives the 3858, 146, command of the army before Carthage.

3859. 145. Scipio takes and entirely demolishes Carthage.

INDEX

OF THE MATTERS CONTAINED IN THE

ANCIENT HISTORY.

EXPLANATION.

The Numerals denote the Volume, and the Figures the Page.

ABANTIDAS makes himself tyrant of Sicyon, vii. 129.

Abas, king of Argos, ii. 258.

Abdolonymus is placed upon the throne of Sidon against his will, v. 126; his answer to Alexander, 127.

Abelox, a Spaniard, his treachery, i. 311.

Abradates, king of Susiana, engages in Cyrus's service, ii. 118; he is killed in the battle of Thymbra, 132.

Abraham goes to Egypt with Sarah, i. 174; the Scripture places

him very near Nimrod; and why, ii. 44.

Abrocomas, one of the generals of Artaxerxes Mnemon's army. marches against Cyrus the Younger, iii. 341. Absalom, brother of Alexander Janneus, vii. 321; he is taken pri-

soner at the siege of Jerusalem, 323.

Abutites, governor of Susa, for Darius, surrenders that place to Alex-

ander v. 177; he is continued in his government 178. Abydos, a city of Asia, besieged by Philip. vi. 277. &c.; tragical end

of that city, 279.

Academy, founded at Alexandria under the name of Museum, vi. 11.

Acarnanians, people of Greece, their courage, vi. 238.

Achaeans, settled by Achaeus in Peloponnesus, ii. 252; institution of their commonwealth, vi. 128; their government, cities of which the Ach an league is formed at first, ibid.; several cities join it afterwards 129; chiefs who rendered that republic so flourishing, 246.

The Achaeans enter into a war with Sparta, vi. 163; after many losses they called in Antigonus to their aid, 165; in a war with the Ætolians they have recourse to Philip, 205; they declare for the Romans against that prince, 299; they join with the Bomans against Antiochus 348; their cruel treatment of many Spartans, vii. 27; they subject the Messenians 52; they send deputies to Rome concerning Sparta, 56; Callierates, one of their deputies, betrays them, 57, &c.

The Achaeans resolve to share with the Romans in the dangers of the war against Perseus, vil. 158; they are suspected by the Romans, 209; cruel treatment of them by the Romans, 210. &s: troubles in Achaia, 227; the Achaeans declare war against the Lacedaemonians, 228; they insult the Roman commissioners, 229

they engage Thebes and Chalois to join them, 230; they are defeated by Metellus, ibid; and afterwards by Mummius, 232, &c; Achaia is reduced into a Roman province, 233.

Achaemenes, brother of Xerxes, iii. 22.

Achaemenes, brother of Artaxerkes Mnemen, is placed at the headt of the army sent by that prince against Egypt, iii. 115; he is killed in a battle, ibid.

Achaeus, son of Xuthus, founder of the Achaeans, ii. 263.

Achaeus, cousin of Seleucus Ceraunus, has the administration of the affairs of Egypt, vi. 185; he avenges the death of that prince, ibid; he refuses the crown, and preserves it for Anticobus the Great, ibid; his fidelity to that prince, ibid; he revolts against Anticohus, 193; his power, ibid; he is betrayed and delivered up to Anticohus, and put to death, 201.

Achaia, so called from Achaus. See Achaeans, ii. 263.

Achardians, comedy of Aristophanes; extract from it, i. 82.

Achillas, young Ptolemy's guardian, viii. 144; he assassinates Pompey, 145; he is put to death, 150.

Achoris, king of Egypt, iv. 311.

Achradina, one of the quarters of the city of Syracuse, description of it, iii. 249.

Acicherius, general of the Gauls, makes an irruption into Macedonia, vi. 63; then into Greece, ibid.; he perishes there, 64.

Actius (Manius) is appointed to command in Greece against Autiochus, vi. 348; he defeats that prince near Thermopylae, 351; he subjects the Ætolians, 353, &c.

Acilius, a young Roman, his stratagem to make Perseus quit his asyium, vii. 187.

Acrisius, king of Argos, il. 258.

Actorates, son of Areus, king of Sparta, vi. 91; valour of that young prince, 93.

Actium, city famous for Antony's defeat, viii. 168.

Ada continued in the government of Caria, after the death of Idriaeus her husband, v. 100.

Adherbal, general of the Carthaginians, defeats the Romans at sea, i. 270.

Adimantus is appointed general of the Athenians after the battle of Arginusae, iii. 307; by what means he escapes death after his defeat at Ægospotamos, 316.

Admetus, king of the Molossians, gives Themistocles refuge, iii. 90; be is intimidated by the Athenians, and sends him away, 103.

Admetus, officer in Alexander's army, v. 137.

Eacides, son of Arymbas, king of Epirus, is driven out of his domisions by the intrigues of Philip king of Macedonia, v. 37; he re-ascends the throne, ibid.

Eacides, king of Epirus, is banished by his own subjects, v. 356.

Egeus, king of Athens, ii. 260.

Ægma, little island near Athens, iii. 7.

Egospotamos, famous for Lysander's victory over the Athenians.

Egyptus, name given Sesostris, i. 176.

Eners, supposed by Virgil contemporary with Dido, i. 225.

Enobarbus (Domitius) consul, declares for Antony, and retires to him, xii. 78.

Æolie dialect, il. 264.

Æolus, son of Hellen, reigns in Thessaly, ii. 262. Æra of Nabonassar, ii. 60; aera of the Seleucidae, v. 377.

Eschines, Athenian orator, suffers himself to be corrupted by Philip's gold, v. 29, 32; he accuses Demostheues, 61; he is cast, and retires into banishment, 62.

Æsop the Phrygian, his history, ii. 318; he goes to the court of Crossus, 319; he is supposed to have been the inventor of fables.

Ætolia, one of the principal parts of Greece, ii. 253.

Etolians, war of the Etolians against the Achaeans and Philip. vi. 205, treaty of peace between them, 227; the Ætolians join the Romans against Philip, 238; they make peace with that prince, 268; they declare against him for the Romans, 300; they condemn the treaty made between Philip and the Romans, 311; they form a resolution to seize Demetrias, Chalcis, and Lacedaemon by treachery, 342; they call in the aid of Antiochus against the Romans, 344,&c.; they offer to submit to the Romans, 354, and cannot obtain peace, \$55; the senate, at the request of the Athenians and Rhodians, grant it them, vii. 24; cruel treatment of them by the Romans, 207, &c.

Africa, discovered by the care of Nechao, i. 191.

Agamemnon, king of Mycenae, ii. 259.

Agarista, wife of Megacles; her father's conduct in choosing her a husband, ii. 297.

Agathoclea, concubine of Ptolemy Philopator, vi. 202; miserable end

of that woman, 27 s.

Agathocles seizes the tyranny of Syracuse, i. 246; his expeditions against the Carthaginians in Sicily and \frica, 247; he brings over Ophelias to his side, and then puts him to death, 252; miserable end of that tyrant, 253.

Agathocles, governor of Parthia for Antiochus, vi. 108.

Agathocles, brother of Agathocles, vi. 202; his ascendant over Ptolemy Philopator, ibid.; his measures for obtaining the guardianchip of Ptolemy Epiphanes, 273; he permises miserably, 274.

Agelas of Naupactus, ambassador from the all es to Philip. Wis-

dom of his discourse, vi. 230, &c.

Agesilaus is elected king of Sparta, iv. 20; his education and character, ibid.; he sets out for Asia, 23; he differs with Lysander, 25; his expeditions in Asia, 29, &cc.; Sparts appoints him perceralissimo by sea and land, 32; he commissions Pisander to command the fleet in his stead, bid.; his interview with Pharnabasus, 34; the Ephori recal him to the aid of his country, 38; his ready obedience, ibid.; he gains a victory over the Thebans at Coronaea, in which he is wounded, 42; he returns to Sparta, 43; he always retains his ancient manners, 44; he discovers the sonspiracy formed by Lysander, ibid; different expeditions of Agesilans in Greece, 45; he causes his brother Teleutias to be appointed admiral, ib d.; Sphodrias is acquitted by his means, 271; Antalcidas rallies him upon his being wounded by the Thebans, 272; dispute between Agesilaus and Epaminondas in the assembly of the allies of Sparta, 275; he causes war to be declared against the Thebans, ib.d.; he finds means to save those who had fled from the battle of Leuctra, 280; his conduct in the two irruptions

of the Thebans into the territory of Sparta, 282, &c.; Sparta sends aid to l'achos, king of Egypt, who had revolted against Persia, 314; actions of Agesilaus in Egypt, 315; he declares for Nestanebus against Tachos, ihid.; he dies on his return to Sparta. 517.

Agesilaus, uncle on the mother's side to Agis, king of Sparta, vi. 147; he abuses that prince's confidence, 151; violence which he commits when one of the Ephori, 153; he is wounded and left for

dead, 160.

Agesipolis, king of Sparta with Agesilaus, iv. 257; difference between those two kings, ibid.; he commands the army sent against Olynthus, 261; his death, ibid.

Agespolis reigns at Sparta with Lycorgus, vi. 210; he is dethroned by Lycurgus, 323; he retires to the camp of the Romans, ibid.

Agesistrata, mother of Agia king of Sparta, vi. 155; her death. 158. Agratis, w dow of Agis king of Sparts, is forced by Leonidas to marry Cleomenes, vi. 158; death of that princess, 169.

Agis L son of Eurysthenes, king of Sparts, enslaves the inhabitants

of Ellos, i. 100.

Age II. son of Archidamus, king of Sparta, iii. 248; he makes war sgainst the people of Elis, iv. 19; he acknowledges Leotychidea for his son at his death, 20.

Agis III. son of another Archidemus, king of Sparta, commands the army of the Lacedaemonians against the Macedonians, and is

killed in a battle, v. 194.

Agis IV son of Eudamidas. reigns at Sparta, vi. 144; he endeavours to revive the ancient institutions of Lycurgus, 146; he effects it in part, 148, &c.; only Agesilaus prevents the final execution of that design, 151; he is sent to aid the Achaeans against the Æto-Yams, 152; on his return to Sparta he finds a total change there, 153; he is condemned to die, and executed, 157.

Agouothetae, a name given to those who presided in the public

games of Greece, i. 52.

Agriculture. Esteem that the ancients had for it, especially in

Egypt, i. 163; in Persia, ii. 205; and in Sicily, vili. 26.

Agrigentum. Foundation of that city, iii. 234; it is subjected first by the Carthagmians, i. 235; and afterwards by the Romans, i. 258.

Agron, prince of Illyria, vi. 140.

Ahasuerus, name given by the Scripture to Astyages, as also to Cambyses and Darius.—See the names of the last two.

Ahaz, king of Judah, becomes vassal and tributary to Tiglathpileser, ii. 61.

Albanians.

Stuation of their country, viii. 125; they are defeated by Pompey, ibid. Alexeus, son of Perseus, king of Mycenae, and father of Amphitry-

on, ii. **2**59. Aleneus, Greek poet, ii. 310.

Alectus, king of the Molossians, great-grandfather both of Pyrrhus

and Alexander the Great, v. 10.

Alcibiades. When very young he carries the prize of valour in the battle against the Potidaeans, i. 147; character of that Athenian, 293; his intimacy with Socrates 224; his versatility of genius, 226 y his passion for ruling alone, 227.

TOL. VIII.

Alcibiades begins to attract notice at Athens, iii. 223; his artifice for breaking the treaty with Sparts, 228; he engages the
Athenians in the war with Sicily, 232; he is elected general with
Nicias and Lamachus, 235; he is accused of having mutilated the
statues of Mercury, 241; he sets out for Sicily, without having
been able to bring that affair to a trial, ibid.; he takes Catana by
surprise, 245; he is recalled by the Athenians to be triod, ibid.;
he files, and is condemned to die for contumery, 246; he rectires
to Sparts, 247; he debauches Timaca, the wife of Agis, and has
a son by her, 248; he advises the Lacedaemonians to send Gylippus to the aid of Syracuse, 255.

pus to the sid of Syracuse, 233.

Alcibades retires to Tissaphernes, iii. 234; his credit with that satrap, ibd; his return to \thens is concerted. 287; he a recealed, 292; he beats the Lacedaemonian fleet, ibid.; he goes to Tissaphernes, who causes him to be seized and carried prisoner to Sardis, ibid.; he escapes out of prison, 293; he defeats Mindarus and Pisrnabasus by sea and land the same day, ibid.; he return in triumph to Athens, 295; and is declared generalisaimo, bid.; he causes the great mysteries to be celebrated, 297; he sets sail with the fleet, 298; Thrasybulus accuses him at Athens af having occasioned the defeat of the fleet near Ephesus, 301; the comansand is taken from him, 302; he comes to the \text{ \text{thenian generals at } \overline{Egospotamos, 314; the advice he gives them, ibid.; he retires into the province of Pharnabasus, 325; that satrap causes him to be assassinated, 326; his character, ibid.

Alcibiades, one of the Spartan exiles, is reinstated by the Achaeans, and sent deputy to Rome with complaints against them, vii. 45; the Achaeans condemn him to die, 48; they soon after amost that

sentence, 50.

Aleimus is placed at the head of Demetrius Soter's army against the Jews, vii. 260.

Alemaeon, ii. 297.

Alomaconidae expelled Athens by Pisistratus, ii. 299; they take the care of building the new temple of Delphi upon themselves, 302; their aim in that undertaking, ibid.

Alcyonaeus, son of Antigonus, carries the head of Pyrrhus to his

father, vi. 98.

Alexamenes is sent by the Ætolians to seize Sparta, vi. 342; his avarice occasions the miscarriage of that design, ibid.; he is kill-

ed in Sparta, ibid.

Alexander I. son of Amyntas I. king of Macedon, avenges the affront his mother and sisters had received from the Persian ambassadors, ii. 351; he makes proposals of peace to the Athenians from the Persians, ii. 63 he gives the Greeks intelligence of the designs of the Persians, 67

Alexander II. son of Amyntas II. reigns in Macedonia, and dies at

the end of one year, iv. 291,

Alexander III. surnamed the Great, son of Philip. His b rth, v. 10; happy inclinations of that prince, 77, &c.; he has Aristotle fallis preceptor, bid.; Alexander's esteem and affection for the philosopher, bid.; he breaks Bucephalus, 31.

Alexander ascends the throne of Macedonia, v. 82; he reduct and subjects the people bordering upon his kingdom, who had re volted, 84; he enters Greece to dissolve the league which had INDEX.

been formed against him, ibid.: he defeats the Thebans in a great battle, 55; and takes their city, which he destroys, 86; he pardons the Athenians 87; he summons a diet at Corinth, and causes himself to be declared general samo of the Greeks against the Persans, ibid.; he returns into Macedona, 89; and makes preparations for his expedition against the Persans, 90; he appoints Antipater to govern Masedona as his viceroy, 91.

Alexauder sets out for Asia, 192; arrives at Ilion. where he readers great honours to the memory of Achilles, 92; he passes the Granicus, and gains a great victory over the Persians, 96; he besieges and takes Miletus, 98; then Halicarnassus, 99; and conquers almost all Asia Minor, 100; he takes the city of Gordium, where he cuts the famous Gordian knot. 108; he passes the straits of Cilicia, 103; he arrives at Tarsus, where he has a dangerous illness, eccasioned by bathing in the river Cydnus. 104; he is cured of it in a few days, 106; he marches against Darius, and gains a famous victory over that prince near Issus, 116, &c; tired with pursuing Darius, he comes to that prince's camp, which his troops had just before seized 119; Alexander's humanity and attention to Sysigambis, and the other captive princesses, 121.

Alexander enters Syria, v. 128; the treasures laid up in Damaseus are delivered to him. 194; Darius writes him a letter in the most haughty terms, ibid.; he answers it in the same style, 125 at the city of Sidon opens its gates to him, ibid.; he besieges Tyre, 127, &c.; after a long siege he takes that place by storm, 138 at receives a second letter from Darius, 145; he marches to Jerusalem. ibid.; honours paid by him to the high-priest Jaddus, 143; he enters Jerusalem and offers sacrifices there, ibid.; Daniel's prophecies relating to him are shown him, ibid.; he grants great privileges to the Jews, 153; and refuses the same to the Samaritans, 154; he besieges and takes Gaza, ibid.; enters Egypt, 155; makes himself master of it, 156; and begins to build lexandria, 153; he goes into Lybia, ibid.; visits the temple of Jupiter Ammon, 159; and causes himself to be declared the son of that god, ibid.; he returns to Egypt, ibid.

Alexander on his return to Egypt, resolves to advance against Darius, v. 161; on setting out, he is informed of the death of that prince's wife, ibid,; he causes her to be interred with very great magnificence, 161; he passes the Euphrates, 162; then the Tigris 163; he comes up with Darius, and gains a great battle, mear whela, 170; he takes arbela, 174; Babylon, 176; Suss, 177; subdues the Uxii, 181, &c.; seizes the pass of Susa, 182; arrives at Persepolis, of which he makes himself master. ibid.; &c.; and

burns the palace of that city in a drunken frolic. 185.

Alexander pursues Darius, v. 186; Bessus's treatment of that prince makes him hasten his march, 188; Alexander's grief on seeing the body of Darius who had just before expired, 189; he semds it to Sysigambia, ibid.; he marches against Bessus, 195; Thalestris, queen of the 'mazons, comes from a remote country to see him, 197; he abandons himself to pleasure and excess, 1:8; he continues his march against Bessus, 200; he put Philotas to death, upon suspicion of having entered into a conspiracy against him, 206; and Parmenio his father, 207; he subdues several

nations, 208; he arrives in Bastriana ibid.; his cruel treatment of the Branchidae, 209; Bessus is brought to him, ibid.

Alexander takes many cities in Bactriana, v. 211, &c.; and builds one near the laxartes, to which he gives his name, ibid.; he marches against the Sogdians, who had revolted, and destroys many of their cities, 212; the Scythians send ambassadors to him, who speak with extraordinary freedom, 213; he passes the Isxartes, 215; gains a victory over the Scythians, 216; and treats the conquered favourably, ibid.; he sends Bessus to Echatana, to be punished, 217; he takes the city of Petra, 220, &c.; he abandons himself to the pleasure of hunting, in which he is in great danger, 221; he gives Clitus the command of the provinces which had been formerly under Artabasus, ibid.; he invites that officer to a feast, and kills him. 223; he undertakes various expeditions, 226; he marries Roxana, daughter of Oxyartes, 227; he resolves to march into India, and makes preparations for setting out, ibid; he endeavours to make his courtiers adore him after the Persian manner, ibid.; he puts the philosopher Callisthenes to death, 230.

Alexander sets out for India, v 232; he takes many cities there that seemed impregnable and frequently endangers his life .36, &c. he grants Tax.us his protection, 240; he passes the river Indus, and then the Hydaspes, 242; and gains a famous victory over Powus 245; he restores that prince to his kingdom, 246; he builds Nicaea and Bucephalia, 247; he advances into Ind.a, and subjects many nations, 248; he forms the design .f penetrating as far as the Gangea, 252; general murmur of his army, bids.; he renounces that design, and gives orders to prepare for returning, 254; excess of vanity which he shows in giving thanks to the gods, 255.

Alexander sets out on his march to the ocean, v. 256; is in extreme danger at the city of the Oxydracae, bid.; he subdues all he meets in his way, 260; arrives at the ocean, 262; prepares for his return to Europe, ibid.; he suffers extremely by famine in passing desert places, 263; equipage in which he passes through Carmania, ibid.; he arrives at Pasargada, 265; honours rendered by him to the sahes of Cyrus. 267; he puts Orsines, satrap of the province, to death, ibid.; he marries Statira, the daughter of Darius 269; he pays the debts of his soldiers, ibid.; he appeases a mutiny amongst them, 274, &c.; he recals Antipater, and substitutes Craterus in his stead, 375; his grief for Hephaestion's death,

276; he conquers the Cossaeans, ibid.

Alexander enters Babylon, notwithstanding the sinister predictions of the Magi, and other southsayers, v. 277; he celebrates Hephaestion's funeral with extraordinary magnificence, 278; he forms various designs of expeditions and conquests 220; he sets people at work upon repairing the banks of the Euphrates, 281; and rebuilding the temple of Belus, 282; he abandons hisself to excessive drinking, which occasions his death, 283, &c.; pomp of his funeral, 327; his body is carried to Alexandria, 330; judgment to be passed on Alexander, 287; character of that prince, 288, &c.; Daniel's prophecies concerning Alexander, 148, &c.

Alexander, son of Alexander the Great, is elected king, v 312; Cassander first deprives that prince of the sovereignty, 358; then

puts him to death, 381.

Alexander, sen of Cassander, disputes the crown of Macedonia

with his brother Antipater, vi. 30; he is killed by Demetrius whom he had called in to his aid, 31.

Alexander I. king of Epirus, marries Cleopatra, daughter of Phi-

lip king of Macedonia, v. 64.

Alexander Baia forms a conspiracy against Demetrius Soter, vii. 263; he ascends the throne of Syr.a, ibid.; he marries Cleopatra the daughter of Ptolemy Philometor, 265; he abandons himself to voluptuousness, 266; Ptolemy declares against him in favour of Demetrius Nicator, 267; \lexander perishes, ibid.

Alexander Zebina dethrones Demetrus king of Syria. 291; he is defeated by Antiochus Grypus, and soon after killed, 294.

Alexander L son of Physicon, is placed upon the throne of Egypt, vii. 301; he causes his mother Cleopatra to be put to death, 307; he is expelled by his subjects, and perishes soon after, ibid.

Alexander II. son of Alexander I. reigns in Egypt after the death of Lathyrus, vii. 308; he marries Cleopatra called Berenice, and kills her mneteen days after, 309; the Alexandrians dethrone him, 314; he dies, and declares at his death the Roman people

his heirs, ibid.

Alexander Januaeus reigns in Judaea. vii. 323; he attacks the inhabitants of Ptolemais, 301; Lathyrus marches to the aid of that city, and defeats Alexander near the Jordan, 802; Alexander's revenge upon Gaza, 324; quarrel between that prince and the Phansees, 314; gross affront that he receives at the feast of tabernacles, 324; vengeance which he takes for it, 325; civil war between that prince and his subjects, ibid; after having terminat-

ed it, he abandone himself to feasting and dies, 326.

Alexander makes himself tyrant of Pherse, iv. 290; he endeavours to subject the people of Thessaly, ibid.; Pelopidas reduces him to reason, ibid.; he seizes Pelopidas by treachery, and puts him in prison, 292; Epaminondas obliges him to release his prisoner. 294; he is defeated near Cynoscephalus, 296; tragical end of that

tyrant, 299; his diversions, 294.

Alexander, son of Æropus, forms a conspiracy against Alexander the Great, v. 101; he is put to death, ibid.

Alexander, son of Polysperchon, accepts the office of governor-general of Peloponnesus, v. 860; he is killed in Sieyon, ibid.

Alexander, governor of Persia for Antiochus the Great, vi. 186; he revolts, and makes himself sovereign in his province, ibid; he perishes miserably, 191.

Alexander, deputy from the Ætolians to the assembly of the allies

held at Tempe, vi. 310.

Alexander, pretended son of Persens, is driven out of Macedonia, where he had usurped the throne, vii. 227.

Alexander, son of Antony and Cleopatra, viii. 163.

Alexandra, wife of Alexander Jannaeus, reigns over the Jewish nation, vii. 326.

Alexandria, a city of Egypt, built by Alexander the Great, v. 158; famous libraries of Alexandria, v. 158, v. 41; fate of those libraries, ibid.

Alexandria, built by Alexander the Great, upon the faxartes, v. 211. Alexis, governor of the citadel of Apamaea, betrays Epigenes, Antiochus's general, vi. 190.

Algebra, that science is part of the mathematics, and ought not to be neglected, viii. 32.

Allobroges, extent of their country, i. 294.

Alps, mountains famous for Hannibal's passing them, i. 295.

Amasis, officer of Apries, is proclaimed kin, of Egypt, 1 195; he is confirmed in the possession of the kingdom by Nabuchodonosor, 197; he defeats Apries, who marched against him, takes bin. prisoner, and puts him to death, ibid.; he reigns peaceably in Egypt, 198; his method for acquiring the respect of his subjects, ibid; his death, 200; his body is taken out of his tomb, and burnt by order of Cambyses, il 181.

Ambassadors. Fine example of disinterestedness in certain Roman

ambassadors, vi. 100.

Amenophis, king of Egypt, i. 175; his manner of educating his son Sesostris, 176; this king is the Pharoah of Scripture, who was drowned in the Red-Sea, 175.

Amestris, wife of Xerxes. Barbarous and inhuman revenge of that

prıncess, iii. 78.

Amisus, city of Asia, besieged by Lucullus, viii. 97; the engineer Callimachus, who defended it, acts it on fire and burns it, 101.

Ammonians, ii. 182; famous temple of that people, 181.

Amnesty, famous one at Athens, iii. 331; occasions when amnestics

are necessary, 332.

Amorges, bastard of Pissuthnes, revolts against Darius Nothus, iii.

283; he is taken and sent into Persia, ibid.

Amonia, king of Egypt.—See Thethmosis.

Amphares, one of the Spartau Ephori, vi. 155; his treachery and crucky to king Agis, 156.

Amphictyon, king of Athens, ii. 260.

Amphictyons. Institution of that assembly, ii. 260, iv. 149; their power, ibid.; oath taken at their installation, 141; their condeacensions for Philip occasion the diminution of their authority, ibid; famous ascred war undertaken by order of this assembly, v. 16.

Amphipolis, city of Thrace, besieged by Cleon, general of the Athenians, iii. 220; Philip takes that city from the Athenians, and declares it free, v. 3; it is soon after taken possession of by that

prince, 9.

Amyntas I. king of Macedonia, submits to Darius, ii. 351.

Amyntas II. king of Macedonia, father of Philip, v. 2; his death, 3. Amyntas, son of Perdiceas, excluded from the throne of Macedonia, v. 5.

Amyntas, deserter from Alexander's army, seizes the government

of Egypt, v. 156; he is killed there, ibid.

Amyntas, one of Alexander the Great's officers, v. 176.

Amyrtaeus, one of the generals of the Egyptians, who had revolted against Artaxerxes Longmanus, iii. 116; he is assisted by the Athenians, 131; he drives the Persians out of Egypt, and is dealared king of it, 215; he dies, ibid.

Anacharsis, of the Scytho-Nomades by nation, one of the seven

sages, ii. 317; his contempt for riches, ibid.

Anacreon. Greek poet, is. 312.

Anaits. Fate of one of the statues of this goddess. viii. 160. Anaxagoras, his care of Pericles, iii. 122; his dootrine, 123. Anaxander, king of Lacedaemonia, i. 108.

INDEX. 239

Anaxilaus, tyrant of Zanele, iii. 164.

Anaximenes, in what manner he saved his country, v. 93.

Andrauodorus, guardian of H.eronymus, king of Syracuse, viii. 36; his strange abuse of his authority, ibid.; after the death of Hieronymus he seizes part of Syracuse, 39; he forms a conspiracy for ascending the throne, 41; he is accused and put to death, 42.

Andriseus of Adramyttium, pretends himself son of Perseus, and is declared king of Macedonia, vi. 225; he defeats the Roman army, commanded by the practor Juventius, 226; he is twice defeated by Metellus, 227; he is taken and sent to Rome, ibid.; he serves to adorn the triumph of Metellus, 237.

Androcles, son of Codrus king of Athens, ii. 263.

Andromachus, governor of Syria and Palestine for Alexander, v.

16:; and end of that governor, ib d.

Andromachus, father of Achaeus, is taken and kept prisoner by Ptolemy Evergetes, vi. 185; Ptolemy Philopator sets him at liberty, and restores him to his son, 194.

Andronious, general of Antigonus, makes himself master of Tyre, v. 372; he is besieged in that place by Ptolemy, and forced to

ourrender, 375.

Androssicus, Perseus's officer, put to death, and why, vii. 162.

Andronicus of Rhodes, to whom the world is indebted for the works of Aristotle, viii. 90.

Androsthenes, commander for Philip at Corinth, is defeated by Nicostratus, practor of the Achaeaus, vi. 311.

Angels, opinions of the Pagans concerning them, iv. 72.

Anicius, Roman practor, is charged with the war against Gentius, king of Hlyris, vi. 174; he defeats that prince, takes him prisoner, and sends him to Rome, 175; he receives the bonour of a triumph, 200.

Antalcidus, Lacedaemonian, concludes with the Persians a peace dis-

graceful to the Greeks, iv. 46.

Anthony (Mark) contributes by his valour to the re-establishment of Auletes upon the throne of Egypt, viii. 142, &c.; when triumvir, he cites Cleopatra before him. and why, 155; his passion for that princess, 156; her ascendant ever him, 157; she carries him with her to Alexandria, 158; Anthony returns to Rome, and marries Octavia, Caesar's sister, 159; he makes some expeditions against the Parthians 160; then goes to Phonicia to meet Cleopatra, ibid.; his injurious treatment of Octavia, 161; he makes himself master of Armenia, and returns to Alexandria, which he enters in triumph, 162; he agicbrates there the coronation of Cleopatra, and her children, ibid; open rupture between Caesar and Anthony, 165; Anthony puts to sea, accompanied by Cleopatra, 167; he is entirely defeated in a sea-fight off Actium, 168; all his troops surrender themselves to Caesar, 169; he returns to Alexandria, ibid.; he sends ambassadors to treat of peace with Caesar, ibid.; seeing himself betrayed by Cleopatra, he sends to shallenge Caesar to a single combat, 172; believing Cleopatra had killed herself, he falls upon his sword, 173; he expires in Cleopatra's arms. ibid. ; that princess celebrates his funeral with great magnificence, 175

Antigona, Philotas's mistress, accuses him to Alexander, v. 203. Antigone, the daughter of Ptolemy, wife of Pyrrhus, vi. 27. Antigonia, city built by Antigonus, vi. 24; and destroyed by Seleu-

cus, ibid.

Antigonus, one of Alexander's captains, divides the empire of that prince with the rest of them, v. 312; he makes war against Eumenes, and besieges him in Nora, 338; he marches into Pisidia against Alcetas and Attalus, ibid; he becomes very powerful, 341; he revolts against the kings and continues the war with Euroenes. who adheres to them, 352; he is defeated by that captain, 363; he gets Eumenes into his hands by treachery, 368; and causes him to perish in prison. 369; a league is formed against him, 371; he takes Syria and Phonicis from Ptolemy, ibid.; and makes himself master of Tyre, after a long siege, 372; he marches against Cassander, and gains great advantages over him, 373; he concludes a treaty with the confederate princes, 380; he forms the design of restoring liberty to Greece, 384; he besieges and takes Athens, ibid. &c.; excessive honours paid him there. 387; he assumes the title of king, 393; he makes preparations to invade Egypt, 594; his enterprise is unsuccessful, 395; he loses a great battle at Ipsus, and is killed in it, vi. 21.

Antigonus Gonatas offers himself as an hostage for Demetrius his father, vi. 38; he establishes himself in Macedonia, 66; Pyrrhus drives him out of it, 90; he retires into his maritime cities, ibid. : he sends troops to the aid of the Spartans against Pyrrhus. 95; he marches to the assistance of Argos, besieged by that prince, 97; he takes the whole army and camp of Pyrrhus, and celebrates the funeral of that prince with great magnificence, 98; he besieges

Athens, 102; and takes it, ibid.; his death, 122.

Antigonus Doson, as Philip's guardian, reigns in Macedonia, vi. 127; the Achaeans call him in to their aid aga not Sparta, 165; he occasions their gaining several advantages, 170, &c.; he is victorious in the famous battle of Selasia against Cleomenes, 178; he makes himself master of Sparta, and treats it with great clemency, 180; he marches against the Illyrians, and dies after having gained a victory over them, 181.

Antigonus, nephew of Antigonus Doson, Philip's favourite, discovers to that prince the innocence of his son Demetrius, and the guilt of Perseus. vii. 83; Philips's intentions in respect to him, 85.

Antigonus, a Macedonian lord in the court of Perseus, vii. 172. Antigonus, the brother of Aristobulus I. is appointed by his brother to terminate the war in Ituraea, vii 322; at his return his bro-

ther puts him to death, 323.

Antigonus, son of Aristobuhas II. is ent to Rome by Pompey, vii.333; he is set upon the throne of Judaea, 335; he is besieged in Jerusalera, 336; he surrenders, and is put to death. 337. Antimachus, officer in the army of Perseus, vii. 155.

Antioch, city built by Seleucus, upon the Orontes, vi. 24.

Antiochus, lieutenant of Alcibiades attacks the Lacedaemonians with

ill conduct, and is defeated with great loss, iii. 301.

Antiochus I. surnamed Soter reigns in Syria, and marries Stratenice. his father's wife, vi. 58; he endeavours to seize the kinedem of Pergamus, 105; he a defeated by Eumenes, ibid.; he puts one of his sons to death, and dies himself soon after, ibid.

Antiochus II. surnamed Theos, ascends the throne of Syria, vi. 105; be delivers Miletus from tyranny, ibid.; he carries the war into

Egypt against Ptolemy, 108; the provinces of the East revolt against him, ibid.; he loses most of those provinces, ibid.; he makes , peace with Ptolemy, and marries Berenice, the daughter of that prince, after having repudiated Laodice, 109; he repudiates Berenice, and takes Lacdice again, who causes him to be posoned, 116; Daniel's prophecies concerning him, 117.

Antiochus Hierax, commands in Asia Minor, vi. 117; he enters into a league with his brother Seleucus against Ptolemy, 120; he declares war against Seleuous, gives him battle, and defeats him with great danger of h.s life. 123; he is attacked and defeated by Eumenes, ibid.; he retires to Ariarathes, who soon after seeks occasion to rid himself of him, 124; he takes refuge with Ptolemy, who impresons him, ibid.; he escapes from prison, and is as-

sassinated by robbers, ihid.

Ant ochus III surnamed the Great, begins to reign in Syria, vi. 186; fidelity of Achaeus towards him, ibid.; he appoints Hevmias his prime minister, ibid : Molon and Alexander, whom he had appointed governors of Media and Persia, revolt against him, ibid; he marries Laodice the daughter of Mithridates, 187; he sacrifices Engenes the most able of his generals, to the jealousy of Hermins. 190; he marches against the rebels, and reduces them, 191; he rids himself of Hermias, 192; he marches into Coslosyra, and takes Seleucia, 195; Tyre, and Ptolemais, 196; he makes a truce with Ptolemy, ibid. , the war breaks out again, 197; Antiochus gains many advantages, ibid.; he loses a great battle at Raphia, 198; he makes peace with Ptolemy, 200; he turns his arms against Achaeus, who had revolted. 201; Achaeus is put into his hands by treachery, and executed, ibid.; expeditions of Antiochus into Media, 269; Parthia, 270; Hyrcania, ibid.; Bactriana 271; and even into India, 272; he enters into an alliance with Philip to invade the kingdom of Egypt, 275, and seizes Cœlosyria and Palestine, ibid.; he makes war against Attalus, 291; upon the remonstrances of the Romans he retires, ibid.; he recovers Cœlosyria which Aristomenes had taken from him, 293; Antiochus forms the design of seiz ng Asia Minor, ibld.; he takes some places there, 318; an embassy is sent to him from the Romans upon that head, ibid.; Hannibal retires to him, 322; the arrival of that general determines him to engage in a war with the Romans, 331; he marches against the Pisidians and subjects them, 334; he goes to Greece at the request of the Ætolians 344; he attempts to bring over the Achaeans in vain, 346; and afterwards the Bostians, 348; he makes himself master of Chalois, and all Eubœa, ibid.; the Romans declare war against him, ibid.; he makes an ill use of Hannibal's counsels, 350; he goes to Chale's, and marries the daughter of the person in whose house he lodges, ibid.; he seizes the straits of Thermopylae, 351; he is defeated near those mountains and escapes to Chalcis ibid.; on his return to Ephesus, he ventures a sea-fight, and loses it, 356; his fleet gains some advantage over the Rhodians, 359; he loses a second battle at sea, vii 1; conduct of Antiochus after this defeat, 2; he makes propossis of peace, 3; which are rejected, 5; he loses a great bat-tle near Magnesia, 8, &c.; he demands peace, 10; he obtains it, and on what conditions, ibid, in order to pay the tribute to the Romans, he plunders a temple in Elymais, 32; he is killed ibid.; character of Antiochus, 33; Daniel's prophecies concerning that prince, ibid.

Antiochus, the eldest son of Antiochus the Great, dies in the flower of his youth, vi. 335; character of that young prince, ibid.

Antiochus IV. surnamed Epiphanes, goes to Rome as an hostage, vii.

11; he ascends the throne of Syria, 89; dispute between that prince and the king of Egypt 91; he marches towards Egypt, 93; and gains a first vectory over Ptolemy, ibid.; then a second, 94; he makes himself master of Egypt, 95; and takes the king himself. ibid.; upon the rumour of a general revolt, he enters Palestine ibid.; besieges and takes Jerusalem, 96; where he exercises the most horrid cruelties, ibid., &c; 'Intochus renews the war in Egypt, 97; he replaces Ptolemy Philometor upon the throne, and with what view, 99; he returns to Syria, ibid.; he comes back to Egypt, and marches to Alexandria 101; Popilius, the Roman ambassador, obliges him to quit it, 102.

Antochus, incensed at what happened in Egypt, vents his rage upon the Jews, vii. 103; he orders Apollonius one of his generals, to destroy Jerusalem, ibid.; cruelifes committed there by that general, ibid.; Antiochus endeavours to abolish the worship of the true God at Jerusalem, 104; he enters Judaes, and commits horrible cruelties, 106. &c.; he celebrates games at Daphne, near Antioch, 111; several of his generals defeated by Judae Maccabaeus, 115; he goes to Persia, attempts to plunder the temple of Elymais and is shamefully repulsed, 117; upon receiving advice of the defeat of his armies in Judaes, he sets out instantly with design to exterminate the Jews, ibid.; he is struck by the hand of God, on h s way, and desin the most exquiste torments, ibid.; Daniel's prophecies concerning this prince, 118.

Antiochus V. called Eupator, succeeds his father Antiochus Epiphanes in the kingdom of Syria vii. 250; he continues the war with the Jews, 252; his generals and himself in person are detheated by Judas Maccabaeus, 253; he makes peace with the Jews, and destroys the fortifications of the temple, 254; Romans discontented with Eupator, 258; his soldiers deliver him up to De-

metrius, who puts him to death, 259.

Antiochus VI. surnamed Theos, is placed upon the throne of Syria

by Tryphon, vii. 271; he s assassinated soon after, 272.

Antiochus VII. surnamed Sidetes. marries Cleopatra, wife of Demetrius, and is proclaimed king of Syria, vii. 276; he dethrones Tryphon, who is put to death, ibid.; he marches into Judaea, 284; besieges John Hyrcsnus in Jerusalem, ibid.; the city capitulares, 285; he turns his arms against Parthia, 286; where he perishes,

287; an adventure of this prince in hunting, ibid.

Antiochus VIII. surnamed Grypus, begins to reign in Syria, vi. 293; he marries Tryphena, the daughter of Physon, king of Egypt, 294; he defeats and expels Zebina, ibid.; his mother Cleopatra endeavours to poison him, and is poisoned herself, ibid.; Antiochus reigns some time in pesce, ibid.; war between that prince and his brother Antiochus of Cyzicum, 295; the two brothers divide the empire of Syria between them, 207; Gyprus marries Selene, the daughter of Cleopatra, and renews the war against his abrother, 304; he is assassinated by one of his vassals, ibid.

Anticohus IX. surnamed the Cyzicenian, makes war against his brother Anticohus Gyprus, vii. 295; he marries Cleopatra, whom Lathyrus had repudiated, 296; after several battles, he comes to an accommodation with his brother, and divides the empire of Syr.a w th him, 297; he goes to the aid of the Samaritana, and is unsuccessful in that war, ibid.; after his brother's death he endeavours to possess himself of his dominions, 305; he loses a battle against Seleucus the son of Grypus, who puts him to death, ibd.

Antiochus X. surnamed Eusebes, son of Antiochus the Cyzicenian, causes himself to be crowned king of Syria, and deposes Seleucus, vii. 305; he gains a battle against Antiochus and Philip, brother of Seleucus, 306; he marries Seleue, the widow of Grypus, ibd.; heis entirely defeated by Philip, and obliged to take refuge amongst the Parthians, ibd.; by their aid he returns into Syria, ibd.; he is agan expelled, and retires into Cilicia, where he ends his days, 308.

Antiochus XI. son of Grypus, endeavours to revenge the death of his brother Seleucus, vii. 306; he is defeated by Eusebes, and

drowned in endeavouring to pass the Orontes, ibid.

Antiochus XII. surnamed Dionysius, seizes Colosyria, and reigns a

very short time vii. 306.

Antiochus XIII. called Asiaticus, sent by Selene, his mother, to Rome, vii. 309; on his return he passes through Sicily, and receives an enormous affront from Verres, 310, &c. he reigns some time in Syria, 313; Pompey deprives him of his dominions, ibid.

Antipas, or Antipater, Herod's father, excites great troubles in Judaea, vii. 329, &c.; he sends troops to ad Caesar, besieged in

Alexandria, viii. 152.

Antipater, Alexander's lieutenant, is appointed by that prince to govern Macedonia in his absence, v. 91; he defeats the Lacedae-monians, who had revolted against Macedonia, 194; Alexander takes his government from him, and orders him to come to him, 275; suspicions entertained of Antipater in respect to Alexander's death, 285; Antipater's expeditions into Greece. after Alexander's death, 317; he is defeated by the Athenians near Lamia, to which he retires, 318; he surrenders that place by capitulation, 319; he seizes Athens, and puts a garrison into it, 329; he puts Demosthenes and Hyperides to death. 324; he gives Phila his daughter, to Craterus in marr age, 327; he is appointed regent of the kingdom of Macedonia, in the room of Perd ceas, 335; death of Antipater, 340.

Antipater, eldest son of Cassander. vi. 30; dispute between that prince and his brother Alexander for the crown of Macedonia, ibid.; he kills his mother Thessalonica, who favoured his younger brother, ibid; Demetrius drives him out of Macedonia, 31; he

retires into Thrace, and dies there, ibid.

Antiphon, courtier of Dionysius. Witty saying which cost him his life, iv. 201.

Antony.—See Anthony.

Anysis, king of Egypt, i. 185. Aornos, a rock of India, besieged and taken by Alexander, v. 238.

Apame, the daughter of Antiochus Soter, and widow of Magas, vi.

Apaturia, fest oelebrated at Athens, iii. 309.

Apaturius, officer of Selencus Ceraunus, forms a conspiracy against that prince, and poisons him, vi. 186; he is put to death, ibid.

Apega, an infernal machine, invented by Nabis, vi. 267.

Apelles, courtier of Philip, vi. 213; abuses his power, 214; he endeavours to humble and enslave the Achaeans, 215; he perishes miserably, 227.

Apelles, Perseus's accomplice in accusing Demetrius, is sent ambasandor to Rome by Philip, vii. 81; after the death of Demetrius, he

escapes into Italy, 84.

Apelles, officer of Antiochus Epiphanes, endeavours to make Mattathias sacrifice to idols, vii. 105; Mattathias kills him with all his followers, 106.

Apellicon, on Athenian library, erected by him at Athens, viii. 90. Apis, an ox adored under that name by the Egyptians, i. 153; killed

by 'ambyses ii. 183.

Apis, king of Argos, ii. 258.

Apollo, temple erected in honour of him at Delphi, i. 39.

Apollocrates, eldest son of Dionysius the Younger, commands in the citadel of Syracuse, in the room of his father, iv. 2-7; he surrenders that place to Dion, and retires to his father. 234.

Apollodorus of Amphipolis, one of Alexander's officers, v. 176. Apollodorus, friend of Cleopatra, favours the entrance of that pris

cess into Alexandria, and in what manner, viii. 147.

Apollodorus, governor of Gaza for Lathyrus, defends that place against Alexander Jannaeus, vii. 324; he is assassinated by his brother Ly simachus, ibid.

Apollonides, officer in the army of Eumenes, occasions the loss of

battle, v. 337; he is seized and put to death, ibid.

Apollonides, magistrate of Syracuse, viii. 44; his wise discourse in the assembly of the people, ibid.

Apollonius, a ford in the court of Antiochus Epiphanes, is sent an baseador by that prince, first to Egypt, vii. 92; then to Rong ibid; Antiochus sends him with an army against Jerusalem, wit orders to destroy that city, 103; his crucities there, ibid; heldefeated by Judas Maccabacus, and killed in the battle, 1/1.

Apolionius, governor of Colosyria and Phonicia, marches against Je nathan, and is defeated, vii. 266; he forms a plot against the li

of Ptolemy Philometor, 267.

Apollophanes, physician of Antiochus the Great, discovers to the priace the conspiracy formed against him by Hermias, vi. 195 salutary advice which he gives Antiochus, 194.

Applus (Claudius), Roman consul. is sent into Sicily to aid the M mertines, i. 237; he defeats the Carthaginians and Syracusans, ib Applus (Claudius), Roman senator. prevents the senate from acceling the offers of Pyrrhus, vi. 76.

Applius (Claudius), Roman, commands a body of troops and beaten near Useana, against which he marched with design

plunder it, vii. 156.

Apries ascends the throne of Egypt, i. 193; success of that print ibid.; Zedekiah, king of Judah, implores his aid, 194; he declar himself protector of Israel, ibid.; Egypt revolts against him 19 and sets Amasis on the throne, ibid.; he is obliged to retire if Upper Egypt, 196; Amasis defeats him in a battle, in which the 'aken prisoner, and put to death, 197.

A quilius (Manius), Roman proconsul, is defeated in a battle by Mithridates, who takes him prisoner, and puts him to death, viii. 74.

A rabians (Nabathaean), character of that people, v. 379. A racus, Lacedsemonian admiral. iii. 311.

A racus, one of the Spartan exiles, is reinstated by the Achaeans, and carries accusations against them to Rome, vii. 45; the Achaeans condemn him to die, 48; his sentence is annulled by the Remags, 50.

Araeus, grandson of Cleomenes, reigns at Sparts, vi. 91.

Araeus, another king of Sparta. vi. 144.

Araspes, a Median nobleman, is appointed by Cyrus to keep Panthese prisoner, ii. 117; passion which he conseives for that princess, ibid. : kindness of Cyrus towards him 118; he does that prince great service in going as a spy amongst the Assyrians, ibid.

Aratus, son of Clinias, escapes from Sieyon, to avoid the fury of Abantidas, vi. 129; he delivers that city from the tyranny, 130; and unites it with the Achaean league, ibid.; he appeares a sedition upon the point of breaking out at Sieyon, 1.12, &c. ; he is elected general of the Achaeans, 134; he takes Corinth from Antigonus, 138; he makes several cities enter into the Achaean league, 139; he has not the same success at Argos, 143; he marches against the Ætolians, 152; Cleomenes, king of Sparta, gains several advantages over him, 160; Aratus's envy of that prince, 164; he calls in Antigonus to aid the Achaegus against the Lacedaemonians, 165; he marches against the Ætolians, and is defeated near Caphyae, 205; Philip's affection for Aratus, ibid, : Apelles, Philip's minister, accuses him falsely to that prince 216; he is declared innocent, 217; he accompanies Philip into Ætolia. his expeditions against the Ætolians, Lacedaemonians, and Elacans, 219, &c.; Philip causes him to be possoned, 235; his funeral solemnised magnificently, 236.

Aratus the Younger, son of the great Aratus, is chief magistrate of the Achaeans, vi. 213; Philip causes him to be poisoned, 236.

Arbaces, governor of the Medes for Sardanapalus, revolts against that prince, and founds the kingdom of Media, ii. 58, 59.

Arbaces, general in the army of Artaxerxes Mnemon, against his brother Cyrus, iii. 342.

Arbela, city of Assyria, famous for Alexander's victory over Darius, v. 178.

Arcesilas, Alexander's lieutenant; provinces that fell to his lot after that prince's death, v. 312.

Archagathus, son of Agathocles, commands in Africa after his father's departure, i. 252; he perishes there miserably, i. 258.

Archelaus, governor of Susa, for Alexander, v. 178.

Archelans, general for Antigonus, marches against Aratus, who besieged Corinth, and is taken prisoner, vi. 138; Aratus sets him at

liberty, 139.

Archelans, one of the generals of Mithridates, takes Athens, viii. 75; he is driven out of it by Sylla, 80; he is defeated by the same captain, first at Chaeronaea, 82, &c.; and then at Orchomenus, 84; he escapes to Chalois, ibid.; and has an interview with Sylla, near Delium, 86; Archelaus goes over to Muraena, 91; he engages the latter to make war against Mithridates, ibid. VOB. VIII.

Archelaus, son of the former, is made high-priest and soverelga of Comana, vii. 130; he marries Bereuice, queen of Egypt, 142; he is killed in a battle with the Romans, ibid.

Archelaus, son of the latter, enjoys the same dignities as his father, viii. 15; he marries Glaphyra, and has two sons by her, ibid.

Archelaus, second son of Archelaus and Glaphyra, ascends the throse of Cappadoeia. viii. 16; Tiberius does him great services with Augustus, ibid.; he draws the revenge of Tiberius upon himself, ibid.; he is cited to Rome, and why, 17; he is very ill received there, ibid.; he dies soon after, 13.

Archias, a Corinthian, founder of Syracuse, iii. 169, 234.

Archias, a Theban, is killed by the conspirators at a feast given by Philidas, one of them, to the Bosotarchs, iv. 267.

Archias, a player delivers up the orator Hyperides, and severs other persons, to Antipater, v. 325.

Archibius, his attachment to Cleopatra, viii. 177.

Archidamia, Lacedaemonian lady; heroic action of her's, vi. 92;

she is put to death hy order of Amphares, 157.

Archidamus, king of Sparta, iii. 128; he saves the Lacedaemonian from the fury of the Helots, ibid; he commands the troops of Sparta at the beginning of the Peloponnesian war, 177; he besieges Plataea, 192.

Archidamus, son of Agesilaus, gains a battle against the Arcadians, iv. 287; his valour during the siege of Sparta by Epaminondas,

300; he reigns in Sparts, 317.

Archidamus, brother of Agis, escapes from Sparta to avoid the fur of Leonidas, vi. 158; Cleomenes recals him. 161; he is assessinated in returning home, ibid.

Archidamus, ambassador of the Ætolians, endeavours to engage the

Achaeans to declare for Antiochus, vi. 346.

Archilochus, Greek poet, inventor of Iambie verses, ii. 308; charac-

ter of his poetry, 309.

Archimedes, famous geometrician, viii. 31; he invents many machines of war, 32; prodigious effects of those machines, 47, &c.: he is killed at the taking of Syracuse, 58; his tomb discovered by Cicero, 59.

Archon, one of Alexander's officers; provinces that fell to him af-

ter that prince's death, v. 312.

Archon is elected chief magistrate of the Achaeans, vii. 157; vize resolution which he makes that people take, 158.

Archons instituted at Athens, ii. 260, 287; their function, iv. 136.

Ardys, king of Lydia ii. 86.

Arcopagus, its establishment, iv. 134; authority of that senate, itsl.; Perioles weakens its authority, 135.

Aretas, king of Arabia Petraea, submits to Pompey, viii. 133. Arete, daughter of Dionysius the Tyrant, first married to her brother Theorides, and afterwards to her uncle Dion. iv. 203; during the banishment of the latter she is married to Timocratea, 220; Dion takes her again, 235; her death, 238.

Arethusa, a fountain famous in fabulous history, iii. 249.

Argaeus is placed by the Athenians upon the throne of Macedonia, v. 2; is defeated by Philip, 6.

he Argilian, a name given to the slave who discovered Pansania's

conspiracy, iii. 87.

INDEX.

94

rginnese, isles famous for the victory of the Athenians over the Lacedaemonians, iii. 305,

irgo, king of Lydia ii. 84.

irgos, foundation of that kingdom, ii. 258; kings of Argos ibid.; war between the Argives and Lacedaemonians, i. 102; they refuse to aid the Greeks against the Persians, iii. 39; Argos besieged by Pyrrlius, vi. 96; Aratus endeavours to bring that sity into the Achaean league, but without success, 141; Argos is subjected by the Lacedaemonians, 167; and afterwards by Antigonus, 169; Argos surrenders to Philocles, one of Philip's generals, 300; the latter puts it again into the hands of Nabis, 302; it throws off the yoke of that tyrant, and re-establishes its liberty, 327.

Argue, king of Argoe, ii. 258.

Ariaeus, of Alexandria, philosopher; Augustus Caesar's esteem for him, viii. 174.

Ariaeus commands the left wing of Cyrus's army at the battle of Cunaxa, iii. 345; he flice upon advice of that prince's death, 346; the Greeks offer him the crown of Persia, 351; he refuses it; and makes a treaty with them, ibid.

Ariannes, an Araban. deceives and betrays Crassus, vii. 347.

Ariamnes, king of Cappadocia, viii. 9.

drarathes I. king of Cappadocia, viii. 9.

Ariarathes II. son of the former, re gns over Cappadoois, viii. 9; he is defeated in a battle by Perdicess, who seizes his dominions, and puts him to death, ibid.

Ariarathes III. escapes into Armenia, after his father's death, viii. 95

he ascends the throne of his ancestors, ibid.

Ariarathes IV. king of Cappadocia, viii. 9.
Ariarathes V. marries Antiochis, daughter of Antiochus the Great, vi. 334; the Romans lay a great fue upon him for having aided his father-in-law, vii. 32; he sends his son to Rome, and with what view, 136; he declares for the Romans against Perseus, 138; declares for the Romans against Perseus, 138

death of Ararathes, 215.

Ariarathes VI. goes to Rome, and why, vii. 136; he refuses to reign during his father's l.fe, 215; after his father's death he ascends the throne of Cappadoesa, ibid; he renews the all ance with the Romans, ibid; he is dethroned by Demetrius, ibid; he implores aid of the Romans, ibid.; Attalus re-establishes him upon the throne, ibid; he enters into a confederacy against Demetrius, viii. 11; he marches to aid the Romans against Aristonicus, and is

killed in that war, 12.

Ariarathes VII. reigns in Cappadocia, viii. 12; his brother-in-law Mithridates causes him to be assassinated, ibid.

Ariarathes VIII. is placed upon the throne of Cappadocia by Mithridates, viii. 12; he is assassinated by that prince, bid. Ariarathes IX. king of Cappadocia, is defeated by Mithridates, and

driven out of his kingdom, viii, 13.

Ariarathes X ascends the throne of Cappadocia. viii. 15; Sisinua disputes the possession of it with him, and carries it against him, ibid; Ariarathes reigns a second time in Cappadocia, 16.

Ariarathes, son of Mithridates, reigns in Cappadocia, viii. 70; he is dethroned by the Romans, ibid.; he is reinstated a second, 71;

and then a third time, 72.

Ariaspes, son of Artaxerses Mnemon, deceived by his brother Ochus, kills himself, iv. 319.

Aridaeus, bastard brother of Alexander, is declared king of Macedonia after the death of that prince, v. 311; Olympias causes him to be put to death, 356.

Arimanius, a deity adorned by the Persians, ii. 237.

Arimazes, Sogdian, governor of Petra Oxiana, refuses to surreader to lexander, v. 218; he is beneged in that place, 219; he submits to lexander, who puts him to death, 220.

Ariobarzanes, satrap of Phrygia, under Artaxerxes Mnemon, ascends the throne of Pontus, i. 117; he revolts against that prince,

iv. 317.

Ariobarzanes I. is placed upon the throne of Cappadoeia by the Romans, viii. 13; he is twice dethroned by Tigranes, ibid.; Pompey reinstates him in the quiet possession of the throne, ibid.

Ariobarzanes II. ascends the throne of Cappadoeia, and is killed son

after, vii. 13.

Ariobarzanes HI. reigns in Cappadocia, viit. 14; Cicero suppresses a conspracy forming against him, ibd.; he ades with Fromey against Caesar, 15; the latter lays him under contribution, bd.; he refuses an alliance with Caesar's murderers, ibid.; Caesas attacks him, and having taken him prisoner, puts h m to death, bid.

Ariobarzanes, governor of Pers a for Darius, posts himself at the pass of Susa, to prevent Alexander from passing it, v. 181; he is

put to flight, 182.

Aristagoras is established governor of Miletus by Hystiaeus, ii. 350; he joins the Ionians in their revolt against Darina, 355; he goes to Lacedaenton for aid. ibid; but ineffectually, ibid; he goes to Athens. 356; that city grants him some troops, ibid; he is defested and k.lled in a battle. 358.

Aristander, a soothsayer in the train of Alexander, v. 167.

Aristazanes, officer in the court of Ochus, Iv. 340

Aristeas, oitizen of rgos, gives Pyrrhus entrance into that eity, vi.97. Aristenes, chief mag.strate of the Achaeaus, engages them to de-

clare for the Romans against Philip, vi. 297 &c.

Aristides, one of the generals of the Athenian army at Marathos, resigns the command to Militades, iii. 10; he distinguishes binnell in the battle 12; he is banished, 16; he is recalled, 41; he goes to Themistoclesat Salamis and persuades him to fight in that strait, 56; he rejects the offers of Mardon us, 64; he gains a famous victory over that general at Plataca, 69; he terminates a difference that had ar sen between the Athenians and Lacedsemonians, 70; confidence of the Athenians in Aristides, 83; his condescension for that people, 84; he is placed at the head of the troops sent by Athens to deliver the Greeks from the Persian yoke, 85; his conduct in that war, 86; he is charged with the administration of the public revenues, 92; his death and character, 95 &c. Aristion usurps the government at Athens, and acts with great order.

tristion usurps the government at Athens, and acts with great cruelty vid. 75; he is hes eged in that city by Sylla, 76; he is taken

and put to death 80.

Aristippus, philosoffer his desire to hear Socrates, iv. 76.

Arist plus c tizen of argos, exectes a sedition in that c ty, vi. 95; he becomes tyrant of t, 141; he is killed in a battle, 143; communiterrors in which that tyrant lived, 142.

Aristobulus I. son of John Hyrcanus, succeeds his father in the highpriesthood and sovereignty of Judaes, 320; he assumes the title of king, ibid.; he causes his mother to be put to death, 322; then his brother Antigonus, 323; he dies soon after himself, ibid.

Aristobulus II. son of Alexander Jannaeus, reigns in Judaea. vii. 339; daspute between that prince and his brother Hyrosnus, .bid. ; Pompey takes cognizance of it, 330. Aristobulus's conduct makes him his enemy, ibid.; Pompey lays him in chains, 332; and sends him to Rome, 333.

Aristocrates commands the left wing of the Atheniana at the battle of Arganusae, in 305.

Arietodemus, chief of the Heraclidae, possesses himself of Peloponnesus, ii. 263.

Aristodemus, guardian of Agesipolis, king of Sporta, iv. 39.

Aristogenes, one of the generals of the Athenians at the battle of Arginusae, iii. 305.

Aristogaton conspires against the tyrants of Athens, ii. 301; his death, ibid.; statucs erected in honour of him by the Athenians, 303.

Aristomache, sister of Dion, is married to Dionysius, the tyrant, iv. 185.

Aristomachus. tyrant of Argos, vi, 141; bis death, ibid.

Aristomenes, Messenian, offers his daughter to be sacrificed for appearing the wrath of the gods. i. 103; he carries the prize of valour at the battle of Ithome, 106; he is elected king of the Messenians, ibid; he beats the Lacedaemonians, and sacrifices three hundred of them in honour of Jupiter of Ithome, ibid.; he sacrifices hunself soon after upon his daughter's tomb, ibid.

Aristomenes, second of that name, king of Messene, gains a victory over the Lacedaemonians, 108; bold action of that prince, ibid.; he is beaten by the Lacedaemonians. 199; his death, 110.

Aristomenes, Acarnanian, is charged with the education of Ptolemy Ep:phanes, vi. 281; he quashes a conspiracy formed against that prince, 320; Ptolemy puts him to death, ibid.

Ariston of Syracuse, comedian, discovers the conspiracy formed by Andranodorus against his country, viii. 42.

Ariston, pilot, counsel which he gives the Syracusans, iii. 274. Aristona, daughter of Cyrus, wife of Darius, ii. 323.

Aristonieus possesses himself of the dominions of Attalus, vii. 282; he defeats the consul Crassus Mocianus, and takes him prisoner, 283; he is beaten and taken by Perpenna, ibid.; the consul sends him to Rome, ibid.; he is put to death there, 284.

Aristophanes, famous poet, i. 85; character of his poetry, ibid. &c.; faults with which he may justly be reproached, ibid.; extracts

from some of his pieces, 82, &c.

Aristophon, Athenian captain, accuses Iphierates of treason, iv. 328. Aristotle. Philip sharges him with the education of Alexander, v. 10, 77; his application in forming that prince 78; suspicions of him in respect to the death of Alexander, 285; fate of his works, viii.

Armenes, son of Nabis, goes an hostage to Rome, vi. 350.

Armenia, province of Asia, i. 28; it was governed by kings, 118.

Arms, used by the ancient Persians, ii. 213.

Arphand, name given by the Scripture to Phraortes.—See Phra-

Arrichien, Pancratiast. Combat of that Athlets, i. 55.

Areaces, son of Darius-See Artaxerxes Masmon.

Areaces I. governor of Parthia for Antiochus, revolts against that

prince, vi. 109; he assumes the title of king, 126.

Armses II. king of Parthia, takes Media from Antiochus, vi. 269; he sustains a war with that prince, ibid.; he comes to an accommodation with Antiochus, who leaves him in peaceable possession of his knugdom: 271.

Arsames, natural son of Artaxerxes Mnemon, is assess nated by his brother Ochus, iv. 319.

Arses reigns in Persia after the death of Ochus iv. 344 : Bagoas

causes him to be assassinated, ibid. Arsinoe, daughter of Ptolemy Lagus, is married to Lysimachus, king of Thrace, vi. 25; after the death of that prince her bro-

ther Ceraunus marries her 60; fatal sequel of that marriage, ibid. ; she is banished into Samothracia, 61. Arsmoe, another daughter of Ptolemy Lagus, marries her brother

Ptolemy Philadelphus, vi. 102; death of that princess, 112. Arunce, aster and wife of Ptolemy Philometor, vi. 198; her death,

203. Arsinoe, daughter of Ptolemy Auletes: Caccar's sentence in her favour, viii. 148; she is proclaimed queen of Egypt, 150. Caestr carries her to Rome, and makes her serve as an ernament in his triumph, 154; Anthony, at the request of Cleopatra, causes her to be put to death, 157.

Arsinoe, wife of Magas —See Apame.

Arsites, satrap of Phrygia occasions the defeat of the Persians at the Granicus, v. 94; he kills himself through despair, 96.

Art.—See Arts.`

Artaban, uncle of Phraates, causes himself to be ereward king of

Parthia, and is killed soon after, vii. 289.

Artabanes, brother of Darius, endeavours to divert that prince from his enterprise against the Soythians, i. 343,; he is made arbiter between the two sons of Darius, in respect to the sovereignty, iii. 19; he were discourse to Xernes upon that prince's design to attack Greece, 24.

Artabanus, the Hyreanian, captain of the guards to Xerxes, conspires against that prince, and kills him, iii. 98; he is killed himself by

Artaxerxes, ibid.

Artabarzanes, after the death of Darius, disputes the throne of Persia with Xerxes in, 19; he continues in amity with his brother, and loses his life in his service at the battle of Salamis, 20.

Artabarzanes, king of Atropatene submits to Antiochus, vi. 191.

Artabazus, a Persian lord, officer in the army of Mardonius, iii. 67: his counsel to that general ibid.; he escapes into Asia after the battle of Plataca, 69; Xerxes gives him the command of the coasts of Asia Minor, and with what view, 85; he reduces the Egyptians who had revoked against Artaxerzes, 116.

Artabazu governor of one of the provinces of As a for Ochus, revolts against that prince, iv. 324; supported by Chares the Athenian, he gains several advantages, ibid. : he is overpowered and retires into Macedonia, ibid.; Ochus receives him again futo favour, 342; his fidelity to Darius, v. 188; he is appointed governor of Petra Oxiana, 221; he requests to be discharged from this

government, ibid.

Artagernes, officer of Artaxernes Minemon, is killed in the battle of Canaxa, vi. 345.

Artainta, niece of Xerxes, iii. 77; violent passion of that prince for

her, ibid.; fatal sequel of that pass.on, 78.

Artaphernes, governor of Sardis for his brother Darius, wishes to compel the Athenians to reinstate Hippins, in 305; he marches against the island of Naxos, with design to surprise it, 353; he is besegged in Sardis by the Athenians, 357; he discovers the conspiracy of Hystiacus, 358; he marches against the revolted Ionians, ibid.

Artaphernes, ambassador of Artaxerxes to the Lecedaemonians, iii.

S10.

Arterius, brother of Artaxerxes Longimanus, iii. 118.

Armvasdes, king of Armenia, viii. 341.

Artaxerxes 1. surnamed Longimanus, by the instigation of Artabanes, kills his brother Darius, and assends the throne of Persia, a. 98; he rids himself of Artabanes, ibid.; he destroys the p rty of Artabanes, 102; and that of Hystaspes his elder brother, ibid.; he gives Themistocles refuge, 104; his joy for the arrival of that Athenian, ibid.; he permits Ezra to return to Jerusslem first, and then Nehemish, 120; alarmed by the conquests of the Athenians, he forms the design of sending Themistocles into Atties at the head of an army, 113; Egypt revolts against him, 115; he compets it to return to its obedience, 116; he gives up linarus to his mother contrary to the faith of a treaty, 117; he concludes a treaty with the Greeks, iv. 46; he dies, 319.

Artaxerxes II. surnamed Masmon, sorowned king of Persia, iii. 321; Cyrus his brother attempts to saurder him, 322; Artaxerxes sends him back to his government of Asa M. soc, b.d.; he marches against Cyrus advancing to dethrone him 340; gives him battle at Cumaxa, 342; and kills him with his own hand, 344; he cannot force the Greeks in his brother's army to surrender themselves to him, 351; he puts Tissaphernes to fleath, v. 31; he concludes a treaty with the Greeks, 47; he attacks Evagoras king of Cyprus, 50, &c.; he judges the affair of Tirbasus. 57; his ex-

pedition against the Cadus ans, 58, &c.

Artaserzes sends an ambasandor into Greece to retonelle the states, iv. 374; he receives a deputation from the Greeka, 287; honours which he paysto Pelopulus, 283; he undertakes to reduce Egypt, 311; that enterprise miscarries, 312; he med tates a second attempt against Egypt, 314; most of the provinces of his empire revolt against him, 317; troubles at the court of Artaserzes concerning his successor, 318; death of that prince, 319.

Artaxerxes III. before called Ochus.—See Ochus.

Artaxus, king of Armenia, vii. 71.

Artemison against Greece, in 37; her courage in the battle of Salamis, 57.

Artemian, wife of Mausolus, reigns in Caria after the death of her husband, iv. 333; honours which she renders to the memory of Mausolus, ibid; she takes Rhodes, 234; her death, 336.

Artemisium, promontory of Eubeen, famous for the victory of

Greeks over the Persons, iii. 49.

Artoxares, eunuch of Darius Nothus, forms a conspiracy against that prince, iii. 215; he is put to death, ibid.

Artyphius, son of Megabysus, revolts against Uchus, iii. 212; he is suffocated in ashes, 213.

Aruspices.—See Augury.

Arymbas, king of Epirus, v. 37.

Asa, king of Judah, defeats the army of Zerah, king of Æthiopia. i. 184.

Asdrubal, Hamilear's son-in-law, commands the Carthaginian army in Spain, i. 285; he builds Carthagena, ibid; he is killed treacherousiy by a Gaul, 286.

Asdrubal, surnamed Calvus, is made prisoner in Sardinia by the Romaus, i. 319.

Asdrubal, Hannibal's brother, commands the troops in Spain after his brother's departure, i. 290; he receives orders from Carthage to march to Italy to the aid of his brother, 319; he sets forward, and is defeated, ibid.; he loses a great battle near the river Metaurus, and is killed in it. 324.

Asdrubal, Gisgo's brother, commands the Carthaginian troops in

Spain, i. 321.

Asdrubal, surnamed Hædus, is sent by the Carthaginians to Rome

to demand peace, i. 331.

Asdrubal, Masinissa's grandson, commands in Carthage, during the siege of that city by Scipio, ii. 15; another Asdrubal causes him

to be put to death. 18.

Asdrubal, Carthagin an general, is condemned to die; and wherefore, ii. 6; the Carthagin and appoint him general of the troops without their walls, 13; he causes another Asdrubal, who commanded with a the city to be put to death, 18; His crueky to the Roman prisoners, ibid.; after the taking of the city he intrenches himself in the temple of Æsculapius, 21; he surrenders himself to Scipio, ibid.; trag cal end of his wife and children, ibid.

Ashes, smothering in ashes a punishment amongst the Pers ans, iii.

Asia, geographical description of it, i. 22.

Asmonean family, duration of their reign in Judaea, vii. 337.

Aspasia, celebrated courtezan, iii. 144; she marries Pericles, 151; accusation formed against her at Athens, ibid.; her great knowledge occasions her being ranked amongst the sophists, ibid.

Asp c, serpent whose bite is mortal, vi. 54, viii. 176.

Asp s, governor for Artaxerxes in the neighbourhood of Cappadocia, revolts against that prince, iv. 62; he is punished soon after, ib d.

Assur, son of Shem, who gave his name to Assyria, ii. 44

Assyr'a, or g n of its name, i. 44.

Assyrians. First empire of the Assyrians, ii. 41; duration of that empire, ibid; kings of the Assyrians, 42, &c.; second empire of the Assyrans, both of Nineveh and Babylon, 60; subversion of that empire by Cyrus, 149.

Aster, of imphipols, shoots out Philip's right eye, v. 18; that prince

puts him to death, ibid.

Astrology, judicial, falsehood of that science, ii. 29, &c.

Astronomy, nations that applied themselves first to it, i. 161, ii. 228. Astyages, king of the Medes, called in Scripture Ahasuerus, ii. 83;

he gives his daughter in marriage to Cambyses, king of Persia. 84; causes Cyrus his grandson to come to his court, 98.
Astymedes, deputed to Rome by the Rhodians, endeavours to ap-

pease the anger of the senate, vii. 203.

Asychis, king of Egypt, author of the law concerning loans, i. 183; famous pyramid built by his order, bid.

Atheas, king of Scythia, is defeated by Philip, against whom he had declared war v. 49.

Athenaea, or Panathenaea, feasts celebrated at Athens, i. 27.

Athenaeus, general of Ant gonus, a sent by that prince against the Nabathaean Arabians, v. 379; he perishes in that exped ion, bid. Athenaeus, brother of Eumenes, is sent ambassador by that prince to Rome, vii. 61.

Athenseus, governor for Antiochus in Judaea and Samaria, to estab-

han that prince's religion in them vii 105.

Athenion, courtier of Ptolemy Evergetes, goes to Jerusalem by or-

der of that prince, vi. 126.

Athens. Athenians. Foundation of the kingdom of Athens, ii. 259; kings of Athens, ibid. &c.; the archons succeed them, 260, 287; Draeo is chosen legislator, 288; then Solon, ibid.; Pisistratus, tyrant of Athens, 298, &c.; the Athenians recover their liberty, 303; Hippias attempts in vain to re-establish the tyranny, 305; the Athenians, in conjunction with the Ionians, burn the city of Sardis, 357; Darius prepares to avenge that insult, ibid.; famous a themian captains at that time, 359, &c. ; Darius's heralds are put to death there, iii. 8; the Athenians under Miltiades gain a famous victory over the Persians at Marathon, 9; moderate reward granted Miltiades, 15.

The Athenians attacked by Xerxes, choose Themistocles general, iii. 40; they resign the honour of commanding the fleet to the Lacedaemonians, 43; they are reduced to abandon their city, 50; Athens is burnt by the Persians, 53 battle of Salamis, in which the Athenians acquire infinite glory, 56; they abandon their city a second time, 64; the Athenians and Lacedaemonians cut the Persian army to pieces near Plataes. 69; they defeat the Persian fleet at the same time near Mycale, 75; they rebuild the walls of their city, 79; the command of the Greeks in general

transferred to the \thenians, 86. The Athenians, under Cimou, gain a double victory over the Persians near the river Eurymedon, iii. 111; they support the Egyptians in their revolt against Persia, 115; their considerable losses in that war, 117; seeds of division between Athens and Sparts, 129; peace re-established between the two states, 131; the Athenians gain several victories over the Persians, which obliges Artaxerxes to conclude a peace highly glorious for the Greeks, ibid.; jealousy and differences between Athens and Sparts, 141; treaty of peace for thirty years between the two states, 143; the Athenians besiege Samos, 144; they send aid to the Corcyracans, 146; they bewege Potidaea, 147; open rupture between Athens and Sparta, 155; beginning of the Peloponnesian war, 175; reciprocal ravages of Attica and Peloponnesus, 179, &c.

Plague of Athens, iii. 183. The Athenisms seize Potidaca, 189; they send forces against the lale of Lesbos, 195; and make thembelves masters of Mitylene, 199; the plague breaks out again

Athens, 205; the Athenians take Pylus, ibid.; and are besieged in it, ibid.; they take the troops shut up in the ide of Sphaeteria, 210; they make themselves masters of the usland of Cythera 216; they are defeated by the Thebans near Delium 218; truce for a year between 4thens and Sparta, 219; the Athenians are defeated near implaipalis, 221; treaty of peace for fifty years between the 4thenians and Lacedaemonians, 223.

The 'the main, at the instigation of Alcibiades, renew the war against Sparta, iii. 229; they engage by his advice in the war with Sicily, 232; Athens appoints Alcibiades, Nicias, and Lamaschus, genera's 235; triumphant departure of the fleet, 242; it arrives in Sicily, 243; the Athenians recal Alcibiades and condemn him to die, 246; after some actions, they besiege Syramuse, 254; they undertake several works that reduce the city to extremities, 255; they are defeated by sea and land, 260, &c.; they hazard a second battle by sea and are defeated, 272; they resolve to retire by land, 375: they are reduced to surrender themselves to the Syracusans, 277; their generals are put to death, 280; consternation of 'thens upon this defeat, 281.

The Athenians are abandoned by their allies, iii. 282; the return of Alcibiades to Athens is concerted, 287; the four hundred mysted with full authority at Athens, 389; their power is ansalled, 292; Alcibiades is recalled, ibid.; he occasions the gaining of several great advantages by the Athenians, ibid.; the Athenians elest him generalissmo, 296; their fleet is defeated near Ephesus, 301; the command is taken from Alcibiades 302; they gain a great victory over the Lacedaemonians, near the Argunase, 306; they are entirely defeated by the latter near Egospotamos, 315; Athens besieged by Lysander, capitulates and surrenders, 317.

Thirty tyrants appointed to govern thems, by Lysander, iii. 318; ahe recovers her liberty, 330, &c.; she enters into the league formed against the Lacedaemonians, iv. 36; Conon rebuilds the walls of Athens, 46; the Athenians aid the Theban exiles, 263; they repent it presently after, 270; they renew the alliance with the Thebans, 271; they declare against the latter for the Lacedaemonians, 286; many of the Athenian allies revolt, 325; generals employed to reduce them. ibid.; alarm of the Athenians, occasioned by the preparations for war made by the king of Parsias, 330; they send aid to the Megalopolitans, 333; and afterwards to the Rhodians, 336

The Athenians suffer themselves to be cajoled by Phitip, v. 8; Demosthenee endeavours in vain to rouse them from their lethargy, 20, &c.; Athens joins the Lacedaemonians against Philip, 39; the Athenians under Phocion drive Philip out of Eubea, 42; they oblige that prince to raise the siege of Perinthus and Byzantium, 47; they form a league with the Thebans against Philip, 56; they lose the battle of Chaeronea, 57; they make a treaty with Philip 58; immoderate joy of Athens upon that prince's death, 66; the Athenians form a league against Alexander, 83; that prince pardons them, 87; conduct of the Athenians in respect to Harpalus. 272

Commotions at Athens, upon the news of Alexander's death, 315; the Athenians march against Antipater, 317; they are viaterious at first, 318; and are afterwards reduced to submit, 380;

Autipater makes himself master of their city, 321; Phocion is soudemned to die by the Athenians, 343; Cassander takes Athens, 349; he makes choice of Demetrius Phalereus to gevern the republic, ibid.; Athens taken by Demetrius Poliorcetes, 385; excessive honours paid to Antigonus and his son Demetrius by the Athenians, 387; Athens besieged by Cassander, and delivered by Demetrius, vi. 18; excessive flattery of Demetrius, 25; he takes that sity 29; Athens declares against Antigonus Gonatas, 102; and is taken by that prince, who puts a garrison into it, ibid.

The Athenians carry their complaints against Philip to Rome, vi. 282; that prince besieges their city, 286; decrees of Athens against Philip, 289; she sends three famous philosophers upon an embassy to Rome, and wherefore, vii. 218; Athens taken by Arahelaus. viii. 75; Arittion makes himself tyrant of that city, ibid.; his cruelties there, ibid.; it is besieged and retaken by Sylla, 79.

Government of Athens, iv. 126; foundation of the government instituted by Solon, ii. 287; iv. 127; shuses introduced into the government by Pericle iii. 126; inhabitants of Athens, iv. 129; senate; 132; Areopagus, 134; magistrates, 136; assemblies of the people, ibid; other tribunals, 133; revenues of Athens, 142; education of youth, 143; different species of troops of which the armies of Athens were composed, 152; choice of the generals, v. 59; equipment of gallies at Athens, iv. 351; exemptions and honours granted by that city to those who had rendered it great services, 553; orations pronounced by order of the state in honour of those who had died for their country, v. 59; of religion, i. 24; feasts of the Panathenaea, 27; Bacchus, 29; and Eleusis, 30.

Peculiar character of the people of Athena, iv. 160; easily enraged, and soon appeased, ibid; humane to their enemies. 162; taste of the Athenians for the arts and sciences, 163; their passon for the representations of the theatre, i. 70; sommon character of the Athenians and Lasedsemonians, iv 164.

ter of the Athenians and Lapedaemonians, iv 164.
Athletae. Etymology of the word, i. 50; exercises of the Athletae, 51; trial through which they passed before they fought, ibid.;

rewards granted to them when victorious, 63. Athlothetae, their function, i 52.

Athos, famous mountain of Macedonia, iii. 29.

Atoesa, wife of Artaxerxes Mnemon, iv. 318.

Atossa, daughter of Cyrus, and wife of Cambyses first, and after of Smerdis the Magian, ii. 189; she is last married to Darius, 323; Democedes cures her of a dasgerous distemper, 329; she persuades Darius to send him into Greece, and why, ibid.; she is called Vashti in Scripture, 332.

Atreus, son of Pelops, king of Mycense, ii. 259.

Atropates, one of Alexander's generals: provinces which fell to him after that prince's death, v. 312; he causes himself to be declared king of them, 387.

Attalus I. king of Pergamus, vi. 123; war between that prince and Seleucus, 185; Attalus joins the Romans in the war against Philip, 239; he gains several advantages over that prince, 275; he dies, 304; his magnificent use of his riches, ibid.

Attalus II. surnamed. Philadelphus, prevails upon the Achaeans to revoke their decree against his brother, vii. 157; he somes am-

bassador to Rome, 200; reigns in Cappadocia, as guardian to Attalus his nephew, 215; war between Attalus and Prusias, 216;

death of Attalus, 381.

Attalus III. surnamed Philometor, goes to Rosse, and why, vii. 917; he ascends the throne of Cappadoeia after the death of his unele, and causes him to be much regretted through his vices. 281; he dies, and by his will leaves his dominious to the Roman people, 282.

Attalus, Syracusan, discovers the intelligence held by Marcellus in

Syracuse to Epicydes, viii. 52.

Attalus, Philip's lieutenant is sent by that prince into Asia Minor, v. 63; marriage of his niece Cleopatra with Philip, ibid.; Alexander's quarrel with Attalus in the midst of the feast, ibid.; Alexander causes him to be assassinated, 84.

Attica divided by Cecrops into twelve cantons, ii. 259; -See Athens.

Atyadae, descendants of Atys, ii. 84.

Atys, son of Crossus, good qualities of that prince, ii. 91; his death, 92.

Augury, puerilities of that science, i. 350

Augustus. - See Caesar Augustus.

Authphradates governor of Lydia, for Artaxerxes Mnemon, is charged by that prince with thewar against Datames, vi. 64; he is defeated, ibid.; and retires into his government, 65; he joins with the provinces of \sia in their revolt against Artaxerxes, 517. Axiochus, \text{\text{Athension}}, takes upon him the defence of the generals.

condemned to die after the battle of Arginusac, iii. 311.

Azithea, wife of Nicocles, kills herself, v. 374.

Azarias, one of the three Hebrews, miraculously preserved in the midst of the flames ii. 69.

Azotus, a city of Palestine, i. 189.

В

BAAL-See Bel.

Babel, description of that tower, ii. 47.

Balylon, Babylonians. Foundation of the city of Babylon, ii. 42; description of that city, 47; kings of Babylon, 56; duration of its empire, 60; siege and taking of that city by Cyrus, 147; it revolts against Darius, 333; that prince reduces it to obedience, 335; lexander makes himself master of Babylon, v. 175; destruction of Babylon foretold in several parts of the Scripture, ii. 139; the Babylonians laid the first foundations of astronomy, 222.

Bacchidas, ennuch of Mithridates, viii. 99.

Bacchides, governor of Mesopotamia under Antiochus Epiphanes and Demetrius Soter, is defeated in many engagements by Judas Muccahaeus, vii. 260, &c.

Bacchis, whose descendants reigned at Corinth, ii. 261.

Bacchus, feasts instituted at 1 thens in honour of him, i. 29.

Bacchylides, Greek poet, iii. 164.

Bactriana, province of Upper Asia, i. 22.

Bactica, part of old Spain, i. 228.

Bagoas, equiuoh of Ochus, commands a detachment during that prince's expedition against Egypt, iv. 340; he poisons Ochus, he places Arses upon the throne of Persia, 344; he causes

INDEX.

253

that prince to be put to death, and places Darius Codomanus upon the throne in his stead, ibid.; he talls into the hands of Alexander. v. 197; he gains an ascendant over that prince, ibid.; by his intrigues he causes Orsines to be put to death, 266, &c.

Bagophanes, governor of the citadel of Babylon, surrenders to Alex-

ander, v. 175.

Bagorazus, Artaxerxes's eunuch, is put to death by order of Xerxes, in. 211.

Bala.—See Alexander Bala.

Baleares islands, why so called, i. 227.

Barca — See Hamilear, surnamed Barca.

Barsina, wife of Alexander, v. 314; Polysperchon puts her to death, 381.

Procession of the basket at Athens, i. 33. Basket.

Bastards, law of Athens against them, iii. 190.

Bastarnae, people of Sarmatia in Europe, their character, vii. 129.

Battalion, sacred, of the Thebans, iv. 273.

Battles and combats celebrated in ancient history. Near the coasts of Myle, i. 259; near Eenomus, 260; of Ticinus, 298; of Trebis, 301; of Thrasymene, 305; of Cannae, 311; of Zama, 329; of Thymbra, 126; of Marathon, iii. 8; of Thermopylae, 43; of Artemisium, 49; of Salamis, 56; of Platae, 69; of Mycale, 75; of the river Eurymedon, 111; of Arginusae, 306; of Ægospotamos, 315; of Cunaxa, 342; of Leuctra, iv. 277; of Mantinae, 301, &c.; of Chaeronea, v. 56; of the Granicus. 94; of Issus, 114; of Arbela, 169; of the Hydaspes, 241; of Ipsus, vi. 21; of Selasia, 175; of Raphia, 193; of Caphyae, 205; of Elis, 242, &c.; of Octolophos, 287; of Cynoscephale, 305, &c.; of Mount Corychus, 356; of Eles, 359; of Myonnesus, vii. 1; of Magnesia, 6; of Bethsura, 116; of the river Peneus, 147, &c.; of Pydna, 180; of Leucopetra, 232; of Carrae, 348, &c. ; of Cabirae, viii. 98 ; of Arsamia, 114 ; of Actium, 168. Bee, name given Sophoeles, i. 75.

Bel, divinity adored by the Assyrians; temple erected in honour of

him, ii. 51.

Belesis king of Babylon.—See Nabonassar.

Belgius, at the head of the Gauls, makes an irruption into Macedonia,vi. 61; he defeats Ceraunus, and is soon after defeated himself. 62.

Belshazzar, king of Babylon, called also Labynit. or Nabonid, ii. 72; he is besieged in Babylon by Cyrus, 73; he gives a great feast to his whole court the same night that city is taken, bid.; he is killed in his palace, ibid.; his death foretold in Sozipture, 144.

Belus, name given Amenophis, i. 176; and to Nimrod, ii. 42.

Belus the Assyrian, il. 42

Berenice, wife of Ptolemy Soter, vi. 28; influence of that princess

over her busband, ibid.

Berenice, daughter of Ptolemy Philadelphus, marries Antiochus Theos, vi. 109; Antiochus repudiates her, 116; Laodice causes her to be put to death, 117.

Berenice, wife of Ptolemy Evergetes, vi. 119; Ptolemy Philopator causes her to be put to death, 195; Berenice's hair. 119.

Berenice, daughter of Ptolemy Lathyrus.—See Cleopatra.

Berenice, daughter of Ptolemy Auletes, reigns in Egypt during her VOL. VIII:

father's absence, viii. 136; she marries Seleucus Cybiosactes, and then causes him to be put to death, 141; she marries Archelaus, 142; Prolemy puts her to death, 143.

Berenice, wife of Mithridates, viii. 99; unhappy death of that princess, 100.

Berosus, historian, vi. 105.

Bessus, chief of the Bactrians, betrays Darius, and puts him in chains. v. 187; he assassinates that prince, 188; he is seized and delivered up to Alexander, 209; that prince causes him to be executed. 217.

Bestia (Calpurnius) is sent by the Romans against Jugurtha, ii. 36; his conduct in that war, ibid.

Bethulia city of Israel. Siege of that city by Holofernes, ii. 66.

Bias, one of the seven sages of Greece, ii. S15.

Bibius, commander in Ætolia for the Romans, 203; his conduct in that province, ibid.

Biblos, city of Phænicia, v. 125.

Bibulus (V. Calpurdius) is appointed by the Romans to command in Syria after the defeat of Crassus by the Parthians, viii. 3; his incapacity, ibid.

Bisaltae, people of Thrace. Valiant action of one of the kings, iii. 44. Bithynia province of Asia Minor, i. 23; kings of Bithynia, 116; Mithrulates possesses himself of it, viii. 71; it is reduced into a province of the Roman empire, ibid.

Biton and Cleobis. Argives, models of fraternal friendship, ibid. Bocchus, king of Mauritania Jugurtha's father in-law, it. 38; he delivers up his son to the Romans, 39.

Bootia, part of Greece, ii. 253; unjust prejudice against that country,

iv. 306.

Bœotians.—See Thebans.

Boges, governor of Eione for the king of Persia, iii. 108; his excess of bravery, ibid.

Bolis, Cretan. His stratagem and treason to Achaeus, vi. 201.

Bomilear, Carthaginian general, makes himself tyrant of Carthage, i. 252; he is put to death, ibid.

Bosphorus Cimmerian, country subject to Mithridates, viii. 126. Bostar, commander of the Carthaginians in Sardinia, is murdered by the mercenaries i. 281.

Brashmans, Indian philosophers, v. 248; their opinions, employments, and manner of living ibid., &c. Branchidae, family of Miletus, settled by Xerxes in the Upper Asia.

and destroyed by Alexander the Great, v. 209.

Brasidas, Lacedaemonian general, distinguishes himself at the siege of Pylos, iii. 205; his expeditions into Thrace, 216; he takes Amphipolis, 217; he defends that place against Cleon, and receives a wound of which he dies, 221.

Brennus, general of the Gauls, makes an irruption into Pannonia, vi. 61; Macedonia, 62, and Greece, 63; he perishes in the last

enterprise, 64. Bruchion, quarter of the city of Alexandria, viii. 149.

Bucephalia, city built by Alexander. v. 82.

Bucephalus, war-horse, backed by Alexander, v. 81; wenders related of that horse, 22.

Burial of the dead in the earth, ii. 239; care of the ancients to procure burial for the dead, 307.

Burning-glass, by the means of which Archimedes is said to have burnt the Roman fleet, viii. 51.

Busiris, king of Egypt, i. 173.

Busirs, brother of Amenophis, infamous for his cruelty. i. 180.

Byblos, city of the isle of Prosopitis, iii. 116.

Hyrsa, name of the citadel of Carthage, ii, 17.

Byzantiam, city of Thrace, delivered by the Greeks from the power of the Persians, iii. 85; it submits to the Athenians, 295; siege of Byzantium by Philip, v. 44.

CABIRE, city of Asia. famous for Lucultus's victory over Mithridates,

Cadız, city of Spaın, i. 228.

Cadmus, Phoenician, seizes Bosotia, and builds Thebes there, ii. 260; it was he who introduced the use of letters into Greece, i. 180.

Cadusians, people of Assyria. They submit to Cyrus, ii. 120; revolt of the Cadusians against Artaxerxes, iv. 58; Tiribasus makes them

return to their duty, 60.

Cadytis, name given to the city of Jerusalem by Herodotus, i. 192. Colestis, Urania, or the Moon, goddess of the Carthaginians, i. 208. Caesar (Julius), his power at Rome, viii. 118. he restores I tolemy Auletes, 136; he goes to Egypt in hopes of finding Pompey there, 146; he makes himself judge between Ptolemy and his sister Cleopatra, ibid.; Caesar's passion for that princess, 147, 153; battles between his troops and the Alexandrians, 149; he gives the crown of Egypt to Cleopatra and Ptolemy, 155, he confirms the Jews in their privileges, 154; he gains a great victory

over Pharnaces, and drives him out of the kingdom of Pontus, ibid.; he is killed soon after ibid.

Caesar (Octavius), afterwards surnamed Augustus, joins with Anthony and Lepidus to avenge Caesar's death, viii. 154; he quarrels with Anthony, 161; he gains a great victory over him near Actium, 168; he goes to Egypt, 171; he besiege: Alexandria, ibid.; interview of Caesar and Cleopatra, 175; he is deceived by that princess, whom he was in hopes of deceiving 176.

Caesario, son of Julius Caesar and Cleopatra, 153; he is proclaimed

king of Egypt jointly with his mother, 163.

Caina, a city of Pontus, taken from Mithridates by Pompey, viii. 128.

Cairo, its famous castle in Egypt, i. 127.

Calanus. Indian philosopher, comes to the court of Alexander the Great, v. 251; he dies voluntarily upon a funeral pile, 268. Calchidaeus, in the name of the Lacedaemonians, concludes a treaty

with Tissaphernes, iii. 283.

Callas, son of Harpalus, officer in Alexander's army, v. 92.

Callias, citizen of Athens, is cited before the judges upon account of Aristides, iii. 94; he is appointed plenipotentiary for Athens to Artaxerxes, 132.

Callibius, Spartan, is appointed governor of the citadel of Athens,

allierates, Spartan, kills Epaminondas in the battle of Mantinaea iv. 303.

Callierates, deputed by the Achaeans to Rome, betrays them, vii. 57; he prevents the Achaeans from aiding the two brothers. Ptolemies against Antiochus, 100; he impeaches all the Achaeans, who had seemed to favour Perseus, to the Romans, 209.

Callieratidas succeeds Lysander in the command of the Lacedaemonian fleet, iii. 302; he goes to the court of Cyrus the Younger, 304; he is defeated near the islands of Arginuss, and killed in the battle, 306.

Callimachus, polemarch at Athens, joins the party of Miltiades, iii.

10, Callimachus, governor of Amisus for Mithridates, defends that city

against Lucullus, and then sets it on fire, viii. 101. Callippus, Athenian, assassinates Dion, and seizes the tyranny of

Syracuse, iv. 237; he is soon after assassinated himself, ibid. Callisthenes, philosopher in the train of Alexander v. 224; that prince causes him to be put to death, 230; character of that phi-

losopher, ibid. Callixenes, Athenian orator, accuses the Athenian generals falsely in the senate, iii. 308; he is punished soon after, 310.

Calpurnius Bestia.—See Bestia.

Calvinus (Domitius) commands in Asia for Caesar, vili. 149.

Calumniators, or false accusers. Punishment of them in Egypt, i.

Cambulus, general in the service of Antiochus, betrays Achaeus, and delivers him up to that prince, vi. 202.

Cambyses, father of Cyrus, king of Persia, ii. 98, 103.

Cambyses, son of Cyrus, ascends the throne of Persia, ii. 178; he enters Egypt with an army, 179; and makes himself master of it, 180; his rage against the body of Amasis, 181; his expedition against Ethiopia, 182; on his return he plunders the temples of the city of Thebes, 183; he kills the god Apis, ibid.; he puts his brother Smerdis to death, 184; he kills Merce, his sister and wife, ibid.; he prepares to march against Smerdis the Magian, who had usurped the throne, 187; he dies of a wound which he gives himself in the thigh, 188.

Camisares, Carian, governor of Leuco Syria, perishes in the expedi-

tion of Artaxerxes against the Cadutians, iv. 61.

Canaanites; origin of that people, i. 173.

Candaules, king of Lydia, ii. 84.

Candia, island.—See Crete.

Canidius, Anthony's lieutenant, viii. 168.

Cannae, city of Apulia, famous for Hannibal's victory over the Romans, i. 312.

Caphis. Phocaean, Sylla's friend, is sent by that general to Delphi, to receive the treasures of it, viii. 77; religious terror of Caphis,

Caphyne, a city of Peloponnesus, known by the defeat of Aratus, vi. 205.

Cappadocia, province of Asia Minor, i. 24; kings of Cappadocia,

118, viii. 8; it is reduced into a Roman province, 18. Capua, city of Italy, abandons the Romans, and submits to Hannibal, i. 316; it is besieged by the Romans, 319; the tragical end of its principal inhabitants, 320.

anus, first king of Macedonia, fi. 262.

[;] oppressions committed by him at Rome, viii. 86,

Cardia, city of the Chersonesus, v. 35.

Caria, province of Asia Minor, i. 23.

Caridemus, of Orea, is banished Athens, v. 87; he is persecuted by Alexander, and retires to Darius Codomanus, ibid.; his sincerity occasions his death, 108.

Carmania, province of Persia, v. 263.

Carrae, a city famous for the defeat of Crassus, vii. 352.

Carthage. Carthaginians. Foundation of Carthage, i. 223; its augmentation 225; conquests of the Carthagm ans in Africa, ibid.; in Sardinia, 226; they possess themselves of the Balear in isles, 227; in Spain, ibid.; they land in Spain, 229; and in Sicily, 230; first treaty between Rome and Carthage, 231; the Carthaginians make an alliance with Xerxes, ib.d.; they are defeated in Sicily by Gelon, 232; they take several places in Secly under Hannibal, 234, &c.; and Imileon, ibid.; they make a treaty with Dionysius, 236; war between the Carthagin ans and Donys us, 237; they besiege Syraouse, 238; they are defeated by Dionysius, 239; the plague rages in Carthage, 241; second treaty between the Romans and Carthagin ans, 242; the Carthaginians endeavour to seize Sicily after the re-establishment of D onysus the Younger, ibid.; they are defeated by Timoleon, 2-3; war of the Carthagin ans with Agathocles, at first in Sicily 245; and after in Africa, 246; they sustain a war in Sicily aga not Pyrrhus, 252; the Carthagin and are called in to aid the Maniertines, who give them possession of their citadel, 257; they are driven out of it by the Romans, ibid.; they send a numerous army into Sicly, 258; they lose a battle, which is followed by the taking of Agrigentum, their place of arms, bid.; they are beaten at sea, first near the coast of Myle, 259; and after at Ecnomus, 260; they sustain the war against Regulus in Africa, ib d.; punishment inflicted by them upon that general. 267; they lose a battle at sea, in sight of Sicily, 268; ardour of the Carthaginians, in defence of Lilybacum, 269; their fleet is entirely defeated near the islands Ægates, 272; they make a treaty of peace with the Romans, which terminates this war, ibid.; war of the Carthaginians with the mercenaries, 274.

The Carthaginians are obliged to abandon Sardinia to the Romans, 283; they besiege and take Saguntum, 288; war renewed between the two states, 289; the Carthaginians pass the Rhone. 291; then the Alps, 295; their entrance into Italy, 297; they gain several victories over the Romans, near the Ticinus, 298; near Trebia, 301; near Thrasymene, 305; they lose several battles in Spain, 310; they gain a famous victory over the Romans at Cannae, 311; bad success of the Carthaginians, 319, &c., they are attacked in Afr ca by the Romans, 325; they recal Hannibal from Italy, 326; they are entirely defeated at Zama, 329; they demand peace of the Romans, 330; and obtain it, bid.; disputes between the Carthaginians and Masinissa, ii. 1; third war of the Carthaginians and Romans, 6; Carthage sends deputies to Rome to declare that it submits to the discretion of the Romans, 9; the latter order the Carthaginians to abandon their city, 11; the Carthaginians resolve to defend themselves, 13; the Romanbesiege Carthage, 14; it is taken and demolished by Sc; o, 21, & it is rebuilt by Caesar, 25; the Saracons destroy it entirely, i

Carthage formed upon the model of Tyre, i. 201; religion of the Carthaginiaus, 202; their barbarous worship of Saturu, 203; government of the Carthaginians, 207; Suffetes, 208; senate, ibid.; people, 209; tribunal of the hundred, ibid.; defects in the government of Carthage, 211; the courts of justice and the finances reformed by Hammhal, 335; wise custom of the Carthaginians in sending colonies into different countries, 212; commerce of Carthage, the principal source of its riches and power, bid.; discovery of the gold and silver mines in Spain by the Carthaginians, second source of the riches and power of Carthage, 214; military power of Carthage, 215; arts and sciences in little esteem there, 218; character, manners, and qualities of the Carthaginians, 220. Carthagena, city of Spain, i. 285.

Carthalo, commander of the auxiliary troops of the Carthaginians,

declared guilty of treason, and why, ii. 6.

Cassander, general of the Thracians and Paconians, in the army of

Alexander, v. 92,

Cassander, son of Antipater, v. 285; provinces which fell to him after Alexander's death, 312; he puts Demades and his son to death, 340; he is associated with Polysperchon in the regency of the kingdom of Maccelonia, ibid.; he takes Athens, 349; and establishes Demetrius Phalereus in the government of it, ibid.; he puts Olympias to death, 358; he confines Roxana, the wife of Alexander, with Alexander her son, in the castle of Amphipolis, ibid.; he re-establishes the city of Thebes, 359; he enters into the league formed against Antigonus, 371; he concludes a treaty with him, and breaks it immediately, 374; he puts to death the young king, Alexander, with his mother Roxana, 381; he besieges Athens, of which Demetrius Poliorcetes had made himself master, vi. 18; the latter obliges him to raise the sege and defeats him near Thermopylae, ibid; Cassander concludes a league against Antigonus and Demetrius, 20; after the battle of Ipsus, he divides the empire of Alexander with three other princes, 22; death of Cassander, 37.

Cassander, Macedonian, by Philip's order, massacres the inhabitants of Maronaea, vii. 46; that prince causes him to be put to

death, 47.

Cassius (Lucius), Roman general, is defeated by Mithridates, viii. 74. Cassius, quaestor of Crassus's army in the war with the Parthians, vii. 346; he puts himself at the head of the remains of that army, and prevents the Parthians from seizing Syria, 360; he forms a conspiracy against Caesar, viii. 154; he is entirely defeated by Anthony, 155.

Cataracts of the Nile, i. 134.

Cato (M. Portius), surnamed the Censor, serves as lieutenant-general under the consul Acilius, vi. 351; his valour at the pass of Thermopylae, hid.; he speaks in favour of the Rhodians in the senate, vii. 205; he obtains the return of the exiles for the Achaeans, 212; his conduct in respect to Carneades, and the other Athenian ambassadors, 219; he is appointed by the commonwealth to depose Ptolemy king of Cyprus, and to confiscate his treasures, 319.

Cato, son of the former, acts prodigies of valour at the battle of

Pydna, vii. 185.

G. Cato, tribune of the people, opposes the re-establishment of Ptolemy, viii. 138.

Caythacans, people of India, subjected by Alexander, v. 248.

Cebalinus discovers the conspiracy of Dymnus against Alexander, v. 201.

Cecrops, founder of Athens, ii. 259; he institutes the Areopagus, ibid.

Cetaenae, city of Phrygia, famous for the river of Marsyas, v. 102. Cendebaeus, general of Antiochus Sidetes, is defeated in Jerusalem by Judas and John, vii. 277.

Censorinus (L. Marcus), consul, marches against Carthage, ii. 9; he notifies the senate's orders to that city, 11; he forms the siege of Carthage, 14.

Cerasus, a city of Cappadocia, famous for its cherries, iv. 8.

Ceres, goddess; feasts instituted in honour of her at Athens, i. 31. Cerethius, one of the generals of the Gauls, who made an irruption in Greece, vi. 61.

Ceryces, priests at Athens, i. 32.

Cesar -See Caesar.

Cestus, offensive arms of the Athletae, i. 54.

Chabrias, Athenian, without order of the commonwealth, accepts the command of the auxiliary troops of Greece in the pay of Achoris, iv. 311; he is recalled by the Atheniaus, ibid.; he serves Tachos again without the consent of his republic, 314; the Atheniaus employ him in the war against their allies, \$25; he dies at the siege of Chio, 327; praise of Chabrias, 325.

Chaerephon, disciple of Socrates, iv. 73.

Chaeronea, city of Bœotia, famous for Philip's victory over the Athenians and Thebans; and for that of Sylla over the generals of Mithridates, v. 56, viii. 81.

Chalcioicos, a temple of Minerva at Sparta, vi. 154.

Chalcis, city of Ætolia, ii. 253.

Chaldacans, addicted to the study of judicial astrology, ii. 230; the sect of Sabaens formed of them, 256.

Cham, son of Nosh, worshipped in Africa under the name of Ju-

piter Ammon, i. 172.

Chares, one of the generals of the Athenians in the war with the allies, iv. 327; his little capacity, ihid.; he writes to Athens against his two colleagues, ibid.; he suffers himself to be corrupted by Artabazus, 329; he is recalled to Athens, ibid.; he is sent to the aid of the Chersonesus, v. 44; the cities refuse to open their gates to him, ibid.; he is defeated at Chaeronea by Philip, 56.

Chares, of Lindus, makes the Colossus of Rhodes, vi. 14.

Charilaus made king of Sparta by Lycurgus, ii. 267.

Charitimis, Athenian general, supports luarus in his revolt against the Persians, iii. 115.

Charon: his boat; origin of that fable, i. 158.

Charon, Theban, receives Pelopidas and the conspirators into his house, iv. 264; he is elected becotarch, 268.

Charondas is chosen legislator at Thurium, iii. 171; he kills h mself upon his having broken one of his own laws, 172.

Chase, or hunting; exercise much used amongst the ancients 146.

Chelidonis, daughter of Leotychidas, and wife of Cleonymus, vi. 91; her passion for Acrotatus, ibid.

Chelonia, wife of Cleombrotus, vi. 194; her tenderness for her husband, ibid.

Cheops and Cephrenus, kings of Egypt, brothers, equally inhuman and impious, i. 182.

Chilo, one of the seven sages of Greece, ii. 314.

Chilo, Lacedaemonian, attempts to ascend the throne of Sparts, but ineffectually, vi. 214.

Chio, an island of Greece, famous for its excellent wine, ii. 254. Chirisophus, Lacedaemonian, is chosen general by the troops that

Ch.risophus, Lacedaemonian, is chosen general by the troops, that made the retreat of the Ten Thousand, iv. 2. Chleneas, deputy from the Ætolians to Sparta to persuade that ci-

ty to enter into the treaty concluded with the Romans, vi. 239. Chasspes, a river of Babylonia, famous for the goodness of its wa-

ters, v. 178. Chœnix, measure of corn amongst the ancients, iii. 206.

Chorus incorporated with tragedy, i. 72.

Christians: the refusal of the Jews to work in rebuilding the temple of Belus, a lesson of instruction for many Christians, v. 282.

Chrysantes, commander in the army of Cyrus at the battle of Thymbra, ii. 128.

Chynaiadanus.—See Saracus.

Cicero (M. Tullius), his military exploits in Syria, viii. 3; he refuses a triumph, and why, 5; by his influence he causes Pompey to be appointed general against Mithridates, 118; his counsel to Lentulus, upon reinstating Ptolemy Auletes, 140; he discovers the tomb of Archimedes, 59; parallel between Cicero and Demosthenea, v. 325.

Cilicia, province of Asia Minor, i. 24.

Cilles, Ptolemy's lieutenant, loses a battle against Demetrius, who

takes him prisoner, v. 376.

Cimmerians, people of Scythia. They are driven out of their country, and go to Asia, ii. 81; Halyattes king of Lydia obliges them

to quit it, ibid. Cimon, son of Miltiades, when very young, signalizes himself by his piety to his father, iii. 16; he encourages the Athenians by his example to abandon their city, and to embark, 52; he distinguishes himself at the battle of Salamis, 59; he commands the fleet sent by the Greeks to deliver their allies from the Persian yoke, in conjunction with Aristides, 85; the Athenians place Cimon at the head of their armies after Themistocles retires, 197; he makes several conquests in Thrace, and settles a colony there, 108; he makes himself master of the isle of Seyros, where he finds the bones of Theseus, which he brings to Athens, ibid.; his conduct in the division of the booty with the allies, 109; Cimon gains two victories over the Persians, near the river Eury medon, in one day, 111; worthy use which he makes of the riches taken from the enemy, 112; he makes new conquests in Thrace, ibid; he marches to the aid of the Lacedaemonians, attacked by the Helots, 129; he is banished by the Athenians, ibid.; he quits his retreat, and repairs to his tribe to fight against the Lacedaemonians, 130; he is recalled from banishment, ibid.; he re-establishes peace between Athens and Sparts, 131; he gains many victories, which oblige the Persians to conclude a treaty highly glorious for the Greeks

Ibid.: he dies during the conclusion of the treaty, 132; character

and praise of Cimon, it id.

Cineas, Thessalian, famous orator, in the court of Pyrrhus, vi. 70; his conversation with that prince, 71; Pyrrhus sends him ambassador to Rome, 76; his conduct during his stay there, 77; idea which he gives Pyrrhus of the Roman senate, ibid.

Cinna, his oppressions and cruelties at Rome, viii. 86.

Cios, city of Bithynia. Philip's cruel treatment of the inhabitants of that city, vi. 276.

Claros, city of Ionia, famous for the oracles of Apollo, i. 38.

Claudius (Appius) .- See Appius.

Claudius (Cento), Roman officer, is sent by Sulpitius to the aid of Athens, vi. 282; he ravages the city of Chalcis, ibid.

Claudius (C.), sent by the Romans into Achaia; his conduct tewards that people, vii. 209.

Clazomenae, city of Ionia, ii. 254.

Cleades. Theban, endeavours to excuse the rebellion of his country to Alexander, v. 86.

Cleander, Alexander's lieutenant in Media, assassinates Parmenio

by his order, v. 207.

Clearchus, Lacedaemonian captain, takes refuge with Cyrus the Younger, iii. 337: he is placed at the head of the Greek troops in that prince's expedition against his brother Artaxerxes, 339; he is victorious on his side at the battle of Cunaxa, 345; he commands the Greek troops in their retreat after the battle, 351; he is seized by treachery, and sent to Artaxerxes, who causes him to be put to death, 356; pra se of Clearchus, ibid.

Cleobis and Biton, brothers, models of fraternal affection. ii. 88.

Cleobulus, one of the seven sages of Greece, ii. 315.

Cleocritus, of Cornth, appeares the dispute between the Athenians and Lacedaemon ans after the battle of Plataea, iii. 71.

Cleombrotus, king of Sparts, marches against the Thebans, iv. 276; he is killed at the buttle of Leuetra. 278.

Cleambrotus, son-in-law of Leonidas, causes himself to be elected king of Sparta to the prejud ce of his father in law, vi. 150; he is dethroned soon after by Leonidas, 154; and banished from Spar-

Cleomenes, governor of Egypt for Alexander, v. 280. Cleomenes, king of Sparta, refuses to join the Ionians in their revolt against the Pers ans, ii. 856; he marches against the people of Ægina. iii. 7; he effects the expulsion of his colleague Demaratus from the throne, ibid.; he reduces the people of Ægina, and dies

soon after. 8.

Cleomenes, son of Leonidas, marries Agiatis, vi. 159; he ascends the throne of Sparts, bid.; he enters into a war with the Achaeans, 160; he gains many advantages over them ibid.. &c.; he reforms the government of Sparta, and re-establishes the ancient discipline, 162; he gains new advantages over the Achaeans, 164, &c. ; he sends h s mother and children as hostages into Egypt, 170: he takes Megalopol's by surprise, 171; he is defeated at Selasia by Antigonus, king of Macedonia, 178; he retires into Egypt, 179; Ptolemy's reception of him, 181; he cannot obtain perm ssion to return into his country, 208; unfortunate death of Cleomenes, 209; his character, 159.

Cleon, Athenian, his extraction, iii. 180; by his credit with the people he prevents the conclusion of a peace between Sparta and Athens, 207; he reduces the Lacedaemonians, abut up in the island of Sphacteria, 209; he marches against Brasidas, and advances to the walls of Amphipolis, 220; surprised by Brasidas, he files and is killed by a soldier, 221.

Eleonnis commands the troops of the Messenians in the first war with Sparts, i. 103; after the battle of Ithoms, he disputes the prize of valour with Aristomenes, 105; he afterwards disputes

the crown with him on the death of king Euphaes, 106.

Cleonymus, Spartan, being disappointed of the throne, retires to Pyrrhus, and engages him to march against Sparta, vi. 91; his-

tory of this Cleonymus, ib.d.

Eleopatra, niece of Attalus, marries Philip, king of Macedonia, v.63. Cleopatra, Philip's daughter, is married to Alexander king of Epi-

rus, v. 65; Antigonus causes her to be put to death, 392.

Cleopatra, daughter of Antiochus the Great, is promised and then given in marriage to Ptolemy Epphanes, vi. 294, 334; after her husband's death she is declared regent of the kingdom, and her

son's guardian, vii. 60; death of that princess, 91.

Cleopatra, daughter of Ptolemy Epiphanes, makes an accommodation between her brothers Philometor and Evergetes, vii. 99; after the death of Philometor her lusband, she marries Physicon, 268; that prince puts her away to marry one of her daughters, 289; the Alexandrians place her upon the throne in Physicon's

stead, ibid.; she is obliged to take refuge in Syria, 291.

Cleopatra, daughter of Ptolemy Philometor, is married to Alexander Bala, vii. 265; her father takes her from Alexander, and marries her to Demetrius, 267; whilst her husband is kent prisoner by the Parthians she marries Antiochas Sidetes, 276; after the death of Sidetes, she returns to Demetrius, 291; she causes the gates of Ptolemais to be shut against him, ibid.; she kills Seleueus her eldest son, 292; she dies of poison which she intended

to give her second son Grypus, 294.

Cleopatra, Ph lometor's daughter, marries Physcon, vii. 268; after his his death, she reignu in Egypt with her son Lathyrus, whom she first obliges to repudiate his eldest sister Cleopatra, and to marry his youngest sister Selene, 295; she gives her son Alexander the kingdom of Cyprus, 297; she takes from Lathyrus his wife Selene drives him out of Egypt, and sets his younger brother Alexander upon the throne. 501; she sids this prince against his brother, 302; she marries Selene to Antiochus Grypus, 304; Alexander causes her to be put to death, 307.

Cleopatra, Physeon's daughter, and wife of Lathyrus, is repudated by her husband, vii. 296; she gives herself to Antiochus the Cyzicenian, ibid.; Tryphaena her sister causes her to be murdered.

297.

Cleopatra, daughter of Lathyrus.—See Berenice.

Cleopatra, daughter of Ptolemy Auletes, ascends the throne of Egypt in conjunction with her eldest brother, viii. 144; she is dethroned by the young king's guardians, ibid.; she raises troops to remstate herself, ibid.; she repairs to Caesar, and with what view, 147; Caesar establishes her queen of Egypt, jointly with ham brother, 153; she puts her brother to death, and reigns alone

in Egypt, 154; after Caesar's death she declares for the triumvirs, ibid.; she goes to Antony at Tarsus, 155; gains an ascendant over him, 156; she carries him to Alexandria, 158; her jealousy of Octavia, 160; soronation of Cleopatra and her children, 162; she accompanies Antony in his expeditions, 163; the Romans declare war against her, 166; she flies at the battle of Actium, 168; and returns to Alexandria, 169; she endeavours to gain Augustus, and designs to sacrifice Antony to him, ibid.; she retires into the tombs of the kings of Egypt to avoid Antony's fury, 172; that Roman expires in her arms, 173; she obtains permission from Caesar to bury Antony, 175; she has a conversation with Caesar, ibid.; to avoid serving as an ornament in Caesar's triumph she dies by the bite of an aspic, 176; her arts to keep Antony is her chains, 162; the taste she retained for polite learning and the sciences in the midst of her excesses, 159.

Cleophe, mother of Assacanus, king of Magosa, reigns after the death of her son, v. 237; she surrenders to Alexander, who rein-

states her in her dominions. 238.

Cleophon, Athenian orstor, animates the Athenians against the Lacedaemonians, iii. 294; his character, ibid.

Clinias, citizen of S cyon, is put to death by Abantidas, vi. 129,

Clinias, Greek of the island of Cos, commands the Egyptians in their revolt against Ochus, and is killed in a battle, iv. 340.

Cliathenes, tyrant of Sicyon; his mode of choosing a son-in-law, ii. 297.

Clisthenes, of the family of the Alemaconidae, forms a faction at Athens. ii. 304; he is obliged to quit that place, but returns soon after, ibid.

Clitomachus, Carthaginian philosopher, i. 218.

Clitus, one of Alexander's captains, saves the life of that prince at the battle of the Granicus, v. 96; Alexander gives him the government of the provinces of Artabasus, and kills him the same day at a feast, 221, &c.

Clitus, commander of Antipater's fleet, gains two victories over the Athenians, v. 320; Antigonus takes the government of Lydia

from him, 362.

Clodius. Roman, is taken by pirates, against whom he had been sent, vii. 318; he requests Ptolemy, king of Cyprus, to send him mency for paying his ransom, ibid.; in resentment to Ptolemy, he obtains an order from the Roman people for dispossessing him of his dominions, 319.

Clodius (Appius) is sent by Lucullus to Tigranes, to demand Mithridates, viii, 100; his discourse occasions the army to revolt against

Lucullus, 114; character of Clorius, ibid.

Clondicus, general of the Gauls called in by Perseus to his a'd, vii. 173.

Cnidos, a maritime city of Asia Minor, famous for Conon's victory over the Lacedaemonians, iv. 40.

Codrus, the last king of Athens, ii. 264.

Colosyria, province of Asia Minor, i. 24.

Cœnus, one of Alexander's captains, speaks to him in behalf of his soldiers, v. 254; his death, 256; his praise, ibid.

Colchis, province of Asia, i. 23.

Colonies, advantages derived from them by the ancients, i. 212

Colorsus of Rhodes, description of it, vi. 14; fate of that famous statue, ibid., 183.

Combats, celebrated of the ancients.—See Battles.

Combats, public ones of Greece, i. 46, &c.; why encouraged, ibid; rewards granted to the victors, 63; difference of the Greeks and Romans in their taste for these combats, 66; disputes for the prizes of poetry, 68.

Comedy: its early state and origin, i. 80; comedy divided into three

classes, the ancient, the middle, and the new, ibid.

Con n, Athenian general, is shut up by Callieratidas in the port of Mitylene, iii. 304; he is delivered soon after, ibid; he retires into Cyprus, after the defeat of the Athenians at Ægospotamos, 315; he goes to Artaxerxes, who makes him admiral of his fleet, iv. 40; he defeats the Lacedaemonians near Cnidos, ibid; he rebuilds the walls of Athens, 46; he is sent by the Athen ans to Teribasus, who imprisons him, ibid; death of Conon, 47; immunities granted by the Athenians to himself and his children, 354.

Conon, of Samos, mathematician, vi. 120.

Consuls, Roman; solemnity of their setting out upon expeditions, vii. 144.

Coreyra, island in the Ionian sea, with a city of the same name, it. 253; its inhabitants promise aid to the Greeks against the Persians,

'iii. 39; dispute between Corcyra and Corinth, 144.

Corinth, city of Greece; its different forms of government, ii. 261; dispute between this city and Corcyra, which occasions the Peloponnesian war, iii. 144; Corinth sends aid to the Syracusans besieged by the Athenians, 259; enters into a league against Sparta, iv. 36; is besieged by Agesilaus, 45; sends Timoleon to the aid of Syracuse against Dienysius the Younger, 43; is obliged by the peace of Antalcidas to withdraw her garrison from Argos, 257; gives Alexander the freedom of the city, v. 277; enters into the Achaean league, vi. 138; insults the dejuties sent by Metellus to appease the troubles, vii. 229; the Romans destroy Corinth entirely. 2.35.

Cornelia, Roman lady, mother of the Gracchi, rejects Physcon's

proposal to marry her, vii. 256.

Cornelia, Pompey's wife, sees her husband assassinated before her eyes, vii. 145.

Corners city of Rectia, famous for the victory of Accessing over the

Corones, city of Beetia, famous for the victory of Agesilaus over the Thebans, iv. 42.

Corvus (or crane), machine of war, i. 259.

Coryphaeus, person employed in theatrical representations, i. 73.

Cos, island of Greece, Hippocrates's country, iii. 134.

Cosis, brother of Orodes, commands the army of the Albanians, viii. 126; Pompey kills him in a battle, ibid.

Cosmi, magistrates of Crete, iv. 123.

Cospaeans, very warlike nation of Media, subjected by Alexander, v. 276.

Cothon, name of the port of Carthage, ii. 17.

Cotta, Roman consult is defeated by Mithridates, viii. 94; his cruelties at Heracles. 104.

Cotys, king of the Odrysae in Thrace, declares for Perseus against the Romans, vii. 158.

Courier. Invention of couriers, ii. 207.

Vourse, or racing. Exercise of it by the Greeks, i. 57; of the footrace, 58; of the horse-race, 59; of the chariot-race, ihid.

Cranaus, king of Athens, is. 259.

Crassus, consul, marches against the Parthians, vii. 341; he plunders the temple of Jerusalem, 334, 342; he continues his march against the Parthians, 343; he is entirely defeated near Carrae, 350, &c. : the Parthians, under pretence of an interview, seize and kill him,

Crassus, son of the former, accompanies his father in his expedition against the Parthians, vii. 343; he perishes in the battle of Carrae.

352.

Craterus, one of the principal officers of Alexander, draws on the ruin of Philotas by his discourse, w 208; he speaks to Alexander in the name of the army, and upon what occasion, 258; that prince gives him the government of Macedonia, which Antipater had before, 275; provinces which fell to him after Alexander's death, 312; he marries Phila, Antipater's daughter, 327; he is defeated by Eumenes, and killed in the battle, 334.

Cratesicles, mother of Cleomenes, king of Sparts, is sent by her son as an hostage into Egypt, vi. 170; generous sentiments of

that princess, ibid.

Cratesipolis, wife of Alexander, the son of Polysperchon, corrects the insolence of the Sicyonians, who had killed her husband, and

governs that city with wisdom, v. 360. Cresphontes, one of the chiefs of the Heraclidae, re-enters Pelopon-

nesus, where Messenia falls to him by lot, ii. 263.

Crete, island near Greece, description of it, ii. 254; laws of Crete instituted by Minos, iv. 119, &c. ; the Cretans refuse to join the Greeks attacked by Xerxes iii. 40; they passed for the greatest liars of antiquity, iv. 126.

Crispinus (Q.) succeeds Appius, who commanded with Marcellus at the siege of Syracuse, viii. 52.

Critias, one of the thirty tyrants at Athens, causes Theramenes, one of his colleagues, to be put to death, iii. 329; he prohibits the instruction of the youth by Socrates, ibid.; he is killed fighting against Thrasybulus, 330.

Crito, intimate friend of Socrates, cannot persuade him to escape

out of prison, iv. 96.

Critolaus, Peripatetic philosopher, his embassy to Rome, vii. 218. Critolaus, one of the chiefs of the Achaeans, animates them against the Romans, vii. 228. &cc.; he is killed in a battle, 230.

Crocodile, amphibious animal adored in Egypt, i. 152.

Crosses, king of Lydia, ii. 87; his conquests, ibid.; his means to try the veracity of the oracles, 92; descived by the answer of the oracle of Delphi, he undertakes a war with the Persians, 94; he loses a battle against Cyrus, 115; he is defeated near Thymbra, 132, &c.; Cyrus besieges him in Sardis, 136; and takes him prisoner, ibid.; in what manner he escaped the punishment to which he had been condemned, 137; character of Crœsus, 90; his riches, 87; his protection of the learned, ibid.; his reception of Solon, 98; his conversation with that philosopher, ibid.; on what occasion he dedicated a statue of gold, in the temple of Delphi, to the woman who baked his bread, i. 45.

Gromwell. His death compared with that of Dionysius the Tyrani, iv. 208.

Croton, city of Greece, built by Myscellus, iii. 169.

Growns granted to the victorious combatants in the games of Greece, i. 48.

Etesias, of Cnidos, practises physic in Persia with great reputation, iv. 18; his works have caused him to be placed in the class of historians, 19.

Gunaxa, city famous for the battle between Artaxerxes and his bro-

ther Cyrus, iii. 849.

Cyaxares I. reigns in Media, ii. 80; he forms the siege of Ninevell, ibid.; an irruption of the Saythians into Media, obliges him to raise the siege, 81; he besieges Nineveh again and takes it, 82;

his death, 83.

Cyaxares II. called in Scripture Darius the Mede, ascends the throne of Media, ii. 84; he sends to demand aid of Persia against the Assyrians, 102; expedition of Cyaxares and Cyrus against the Babylonians, 113; Cyaxares gives his daughter to Cyrus in marriage, 122; he goes to Babylon with that prince, and forms, in concert with him, the plan of the whole monarchy, 160; death of Cyaxares, 162.

Gyeliadus, president of the assembly of the Ashaeans held at Argos.

eludes Philip's proposal, vi. 283.

Cylon, known by taking the citadel at Athens, iii. 150.

Cynaegirus, Athenian. His tenacious fierceness against the Persians in a sea-fight with them, iii. 12.

Cynisca, sister of Agesilans, disputes the prize in the Olympic

games, and is proclaimed victorious, i. 63.

Cynoscephale, a hill in Thessaly, famous for the victory of the Romans over Philip, vi. 106.

Cyprus, island in the Mediterranean, delivered from the Persian yoke by the Greeks, iii. 85; revolt of that island against Ochus, iv. 336; it submits, 339; horrible and bloody tragedy that occurs there at the death of Nicocles, v. 374; after having been governed sometimes by the kings of Egypt, and sometimes by the kings of Syria, it is seized by the Romans, vii. 319.

Cypselus, Corinthian, usurps the supreme authority at Corinth, and

transmits it to his son, ii. 262.

Cyrene, city upon the coast of the Mediterranean. In what manner the dispute between this city and Carthage, concerning their limits, terminated, i. 226.

Cyropolis, city of Sogdiana, destroyed by Alexander, v. 211.

Cyrns, son of Cambyses, king of Persia. Birth of that prince, ii. 84; his education, 96; he goes to the court of his grandfather Astyages, 98; his return into Persia, 101; he marches to the aid of his uncle Cyaxares against the Babylonians, 103; he reduces the king of Armenia, 107; he gains a first advantage over Crossus, and the Babylonians, 114; his conduct towards Panthaea, 117; he challenges the king of the Assyrians to a single combat, 121; he returns to Cyaxares, ibid.; that prince gives him his daughter in marriage, 122.

Cyrus marches to meet the Babylonians, 130; he gains a fa-mous victory over them and Crossus at the battle of Thymbra, 133, &c.; he makes himself master of Sardis, and takes Crossus prisoner, 156; he advances to Babylon, 139; and takes it, 149; conduct of Cyrus after 'the taking of Babylon, 153; he shows himself with great pomp to the newly conquered people, 153; he goes to Persia, 160; at his return he carries Cyaxares to Babylon, and forms the plan of the whole monarchy in concert with him, ibid.; after the death of Cyaxares, he reigns over the Medes and Persians, 162; he passes a famous edict in favour of the Jews, 163; fast years of Cyrus, 168; his death, and discourse with his children before his death, 169; praise and character of Cyrus, 170, &cc.; his continual attention to reader the Divinity the worship he thought due to him, 130; difference between Herodotus and Kenophon in respect to Cyrus the Great, 176.

Cyrus, the younger son of Darius, is made governor in chief of all the provinces of Asia Minor by his father, iii. 216; his father recals him, 312; after the death of Darius he forms the design of assassinating his brother, 322; he is sent back into Asia Minor, ibid.; he secretly raises troops against his brother, 337; he sets out from Sardis, 339; the battle of Cunaxa, 342; he is killed in

it, 345; ealogy of Cyrus, 348.

Cythera, island of Greece, facing Laconia, ii. 254.

D.

DEDALA, a country of India, subjected by Alexander, v. 237.

Daemon, or familiar spirit of Socrates, iv. 71.

Damippus, Syracusan, sent by Epicydes to negotiate with Philip, king of Macedonia, viii. 52,

Damis disputes with Aristomenes the succession to the kingdom of Messenia, after the death of Euphaes, i. 106.

Damoeles learns by his own experience, that the life of Dionysius the Tyrant was not so happy as it seemed, iv. 206.

Damostitus deputed to Nabis by the Ætolians, vi. 332; his insolent answer to Quintius, 341; he is made prisoner of war at the siege of Heraelea, 354.

Damocritus, chief magistrate of the Achaeans, causes war to be de-

clared against the Lacedaemonians, vii. 227.

Damon, friend of Pithias. Trial to which their friendship was put, iv. 206.

Danaus forms a design to murder Sessatris his brother, i. 180; he retires into Peloponnesus, where he siezes the kingdom of Argos, ibid.

Dancing cultivated by the Greeks, iv. 143.

Daniel, the prophet, is carried into captivity to Babylon, ii. 67; he explains Nabuchodonosor's first dream, ibid.; and the second, 71; he is raised to the principal offices of the state, 68; discovers the fraud of the priests of Bel, and causes the dragon to be killed, 72; visions of the prophet Daniel, 73; he explains to Belshazzar the vision which that prince had at a banquet, 145; he is made superintendant of the affairs of the empire, 161; he is thrown into the lions' den, 162; at his request Cyrus grants the ediet, whereby the Jews are permitted to return to Jerusalem, 163; Daniel's skill in architecture, 164; reflections upon the prophecies of Daniel, 165.

Darieks, pieces of gold struck by Darius the Mede, il. 162.

Darius the Mede. Cyaxares II. king of the Medes, is so called in

Scripture.—See Cyazares.

Darius, son of Hystaspes. He enters into the conspiracy against Smerdis the Magian, ii. 190; he runs him through with his sword, 191; he is made king of Perus by an artifice of his groom, 192; the esteem he acquires by his wisdom and prudence, 197; he quits the name of Ochus to assume that of Darius, 323; marriages of Darius, 324; his method for transmitting to posterity the manner in which he attained the sovereignty, ibid; order which he establishes in the administration of the finances, ibid; his moderation in imposing tributes, 325; the Persians give him the surname of the Merchant, ibid; he sends Democedes the the physician into Greece, 329; he confirms the edict of Cyrus in favour of the Jews, 331; his gratitude to Syloson, whom he re-establishes king of Samos, 333.

Darius reduces Babylon after a siege of twenty months, 335; expedition of Darius against the Soythians, 336; Artabasus's remonstrance to Darius, 343, &c.; harbarous action of Darius to the three children of Œbasus, 345; Darius conquers India, 351; he conceives the design of making himself master of Naxus, 353; the Ionians revolt against Darius, 354: he re-establishes the Tyrians in their ancient privileges, ibid.; Darius's resentment against the Athenians, who had shared in the burning of Sardia, 357; his expedition against Greece, iii. 1; he sends hersids into Greece, to sound the states, and to demand their submission, 7; his army is defeated at Marathon, 8, &c.; Darius resolves to go in person against Egypt and Greece, 17; he chooses his successor, 18; his death, 20; his epitaph, ibid.; his character, ibid., &c.; dispute

between two of his sons for the crown, 19,

Darius, the eldest son of Xerxes. His marriage with Artainta, iii.

77; he is murdered by his brother Artaxerxes, 98.

Darius Nothus takes arms against Sogdianus, and puts him to death, iii. 212; he ascends the throne of Persia, and changes his name from Ochus to Darius, ibid.; he causes his brother Arsitea, who revolted against h'm. to be smothered in ashes, 213; puts a stop to the rebellion of Pisuthnes, 214; and punishes the treason of Artoxares his principal cunuch, 215; he quells the revolt of Egypt, ibid.; and that of Media. ibid.; he gives the government of Asia Minor to Cyrus, his younger son, 216; the instructions which he gives bim on sending him to his government, 299; Darius recals Cyrus to court, 312; death of Darius Nothus, 320; his memorable words to Artaxerxes. his successor, at his death, 321.

Darius, son of Artaxerxes Mnemon, conspires against his father's life, iv. 318; his conspiracy is discovered and punished, 319.

Darius Colomanus is placed by Bagoas upon the throne of Persia, iv. 344; he loses the battle of the Granicus against Alexander, v. 93, &c.; he orders Memnon the Ehodian to carry the war into Macedonia, 102; Darius resolves to command in person, 103; Caridemus, his free remonstrance to Darius, 108; march of Dar us's army, 109; famous victory of Alexander over Darius-near the city of Issus, 117, &c.

Darius's haughty letter to Alexander. v. 124; second letter of Darius to Alexander, 145; Darius receives advice of his wife's death, 161; his prayer to the gods upon being told in what manner she

INDEX. 26

had been treated by Alexander, 162; Darius proposes new conditions of peace to Alexander, which are not accepted, 165; farmous battle of Arbela, wherein Darius is defeated, 169, &c.; retreat of Darius after that battle, 174; he quite Ecbatana, 186; his speech to his principal officers to induce them to march against the enemy, ibid.; he is betrayed and laid in chains by Bessus and Nabarzanes, 187; unhappy death of that prince, 188; his last words, 189.

Darius, king of the Medes, is subdued by Pompey, viii. 126.

Datames, Carian, succeeds his father Camisares in the government of Leuco-Syria, iv. 61; he reduces Thyus, governor of Paphlagonia, who had revolted against the king of Persia, ibid.; he receives the command of the army designed against Egypt, 63; he is ordered to reduce Aspis, ibid.; he revolts against Artaxerxes, 63; and gains several advantages over the troops sent against bim, 64; he is assassinated by order of Artaxerxes, 65.

Datis commands the army of the Persians at the battle of Mara-

thon, iii. 9.

Debta. Law of the Egyptians in respect to those who contracted debta, i. 149; Solon's law for annihilating debta, ii. 291.

Decelia, fort of Attica, iii. 253; is fortified by the Lacedaemonians,

263.

Deidamia, daughter of Æacides, marries Demetrius, son of Antigonus, vi. 19; ber death, 26.

Dejoces forms the design of ascending the throne of Media, ii. 74; he is elected king by unanimous consent, 76; conduct of Dejoces in governing his kingdom, ibid.; he builds Echatana, 77; means used by him for acquiring the respect of his subjects, 78.

Dejotarus, prince of Galatia. Pompey gives him Armenia Minor,

viii. 130.

Delium, place in Bootia. Battle there between the Athenians and

Thebans, ni. 218.

Delos, one of the Cyclades. The common treasures of Greece deposited in that island, it 91; the Athenians send a ship every year to Delos, iv. 95; Archelaus subjects Delos, and restores it to the Athenians, vii. 75.

Delphos, city of Phocis, famous for Apollo's oracle there, i. 39; the Pythia and Sybil of Delphos, ibid., &c.; temple of Delphos burnt

and rebuilt, 45.

Delta, or Lower Egypt, i. 141.

Deluge of Deucation, ii. 259; that of Ogyges, ibid.

Demades' opposes the advice of Demosthenes, v. 24; he is taken prisoner at the battle of Chaeronea, 57; he goes ambassador to Alexander from the Athenians, 87; he prepares the decree for the death of Demosthenes, 321; Demades, with his son, killed by Gassander, 340.

Damarata, wife of Andranodorus. She persuades her husband not to submit to the senate of Syracuse, viii. 40; she is killed, 43.

Demaratus, king of Sparta, expelled the throne by Cleomenes, his colleague, iii. 7; his fine and noble answer to Xerxes, 38; vain and insolent demand of Demaratus to Artaxerxes, 106.

Demetrius (Phalerius), he is obliged to quit Athens, and is condemned to die in his absence, v. 324; Cassander settles him there to govern the republic, 349; his wisdom and ability in the governs

ment, ibid., &c. ; three hundred and sixty statutes are erected to him out of gratitude, 385; reflection upon that great number of statues erected in honour of Demetrius Phalereus, 390; he retires to Thebes after the taking of Athens by Demetrius Pulorcetes, 586; his statues are thrown down, and he is conclemned to die at Athens, 389; he takes refuge with Cassander, and afterwards in Egypt, ibid.; he is made intendant of king Ptolemy's library, vi. 43; his death, 54; character of his eloquence and with ings, ibid., &c.

Demetrius, son of Antigonus, surnamed Poliorcetes. His character, v. 372, &c.; he begins to distinguish himself in Asia Manor, 373; he loses a battle at Gaza against Ptolemy, 875; he gains one son after against Cilles, the same Ptolemy's lieutenant, 376; he is sent by his father to Babylon to oppose Seleucus, 379; he makes Ptolemy raise the siege of Halicarnassus, 380; he makes himsett master of Athens, 385; and re-establishes the democratical government, 387; excessive gratitude of the Athenians to him, bid.; he besieges Salamis, 392; and takes it, 593; he receives the title of

king, ibid.; his conduct in war and peace, vi. 1.

Demetrius forms the siege of Rhodes, v. 2, &c.; he makes Cassander raise the siege of Athens, 18; excessive honours which he receives in that city, ibid.; he marries Deidamia, 19; he is proclaimed general of the Greeks, and initiated into the great and leser mysteries, ibid. ; he is defeated at the battle of Ipsus, 20 ; Athens shuts her gates against him, 25; he takes that city. 29; he forms the design of subjecting the Lacedaemon.ans, ibid. &cc.; he loses almost at the same time all his dominions in Asia, 30; Demetrius called in to the aid of Alexander. Cassander's son, 31; destroys n m, and is proclaimed king of Macedon a, ib.d.; he makes great preparations for recovering his father's empire in Asia, 52; he is obliged to abandon Macedonia, 35; he surrenders h.mself to Seleucus, who keeps him prisoner, 38, &c.; his death, 39.

Demetrius, brother of Antigonus Gonatas, is put to death in Aname's

bed, vi. 108.

Demetrius, son and successor to Antigonus Gonatas, vi. 122; his death, 127.

Demetrius of Pharus, prince of Illyria, vi. 140; he advises Philip.

king of Macedon a, to carry the war into haly, 229.

Demetrus, son of Phil p, king of Macedonia, is given as an house to the Romans, vi. 311; the Romans send him back to his father. 355; Ph.1 p sends Demetrius ambassador to Rome, vii. 47; Demetrius justifies h s father to the Romans, 62; he returns into Macedonia, ib d.: Perseus's secret plot against his brother Demetrus. 65; he accuses h in to h s father, 68; Demetrius's delence against the accusations of Perseus, 74; Philip causes him to be put to death, 82.

Demetrius Soter, after having been long an hostage at Rome. demands permission to return into Syr a in van, vit. 251; he escapes from Rome, 259; he ascends the throne of Syria, and receives the surname of Soter from the Baby lomans, ib d.; he makes waraga ast the Jews, 260, &c.; he places Holophernes upon the throne of Cappadocia, 215, 262: the Ronaus acknowledge him king of Stria, 261; he abandons himself to feasing and voluptuousiess, 262; comp racy aga not him ibid.; he endeavours to engage the Jews in h s interests, 264; he is killed in a battle, 265.

Demetrius Nicator, son of Demetrius Soter, claims the crown of Syra, via. 256; he matries the daughter of Ptolemy Philometor, 267; he drives Alexander the usurper out of Syra, and remains in quiet possession of the throne, ibid.: excessess of Demetrius, 269; Jonathan sends him aid against the people of Antoch, 270; he is driven out of Syria, 271; his manner of living at Laodices, whither he had retired, 273; he is taken prisoner in an expedition against the Parth ans, ibid.; he marries thodoguna, daughter of Mithridates, king of Parthia, 274; he makes neffectual attempts to return into his kingdom, 286; he recovers his dom mons 237; he is defeated in a battle by Alexander Zebna, 291; his death, ibid.

Demetrius Euchares is established king at Damascus, vii. 306.

Demiurgi, magistrates among the \chaeans, vi. 299.

Democedes, physician of Crotona, he cures Darius, ii. 327; history of that physician, 328; he returns into Greece, 330; he settles at Crotona, where he marries the daughter of Milo the Athleta, ibid. Demochares, one of the murderers of Agis, king of Sparta vi. 156. Democles, surnamed the Fair, vi. 18; throws himself, to clude the violence of Demetrius, into a vessel of boiling water prepared for

a bath, ibid.

Demophantes, general of the horse to the Elacans, is killed by Philo-

poemen before the city of Elis, vi. 156.

Demosthenes is chosen by the Athenians commander of a fleet for the aid of Nicias in Sicily, iii. 263; he makes an attempt against Syracuse without success, 269; he is reduced to surrender at dis-

eretion to the Syracusans, 277; he is put to death, 280.

Demosthenes the Orator. Abridgment of his life to the time when he begins to appear in the tribunal of harangues, iv. 344, &c.; he appears for the first time in public, and encourages the Athenians against the preparations for war made by Artaxerxes, 330; his oration in favour of the Megalopolitans, 331; he speaks for the Rhodians, 335; he proposes and occasions the passing of a law for the equipment of fleets, which annuls another very heavy upon the poorer citizens, \$51; his discourse in defence of the law that granted exemptions, 355.

Demosthenes, upon occasion of Philip's attempt to seize Thermopylae, harangues the Athenians, and animates them against that prince, v. 21; he is sent ambassador to Philip, 29; his oration upon the peace, 34; that upon the Chersonesus, 36; Demosthenes presses the Athenians to declare for the Lacedaemonians against Philip, 38; his Philippias, 42; his oration to frustrate the effects of Philip's letter to the Athenians, 46; his advice after the taking of Elataea by that prince, 52; he is sent upon an embassy to Thebes, 55; he flies in the battle of Chaeronea, 57; he is cited to a trial before the people, who acquit him and pay him great honours, 59; Eschines accuses him. 61; generosity of Demosthenes to his accuser, 62; his immoderate joy for Philip's death, 66.

Demosthenes animates the people against Alexander, v. 84; he dissuades the Athenians from delivering up the orators to Alexander, 87: Demosthenes suffers himself to be bribed by Harpalus, 272; is condemned and banished, ibid.; he is recalled from bat-

nishment, 316; he quits Athens before the arrival of Antipater, \$21; be is condemned to die, ibid.; he puts an end to his life by poison, 321; the Athenians erect a statue of brass to him, ibid.

Dercyllidas, surnamed Sisyphus, receives the command of the Lacedaemonian troops in the room of Thymbron, iv. 16; he takes Eolia from Midias, who had possessed himself of it by putting his mother-in-law Mania to death, 17; she shuts up the isthmus of the Thrasian Chersonesus, ibid.; truce concluded between Dercyllidas, Pharnabezus, and Tissaphernes, 20.
Dencalion, king of Thessaly, ii. 262; deluge of Deucalion, ibid.

Deucetius, chief of the people called Sicilians. His history, iii. 166. Diseus, one of the chiefs of the Achaeans, sows discord amongst them, viv. 228, &c.; he takes upon him the command of the army in the room of Critolaus, 230; his unfortunate end, 232. Diagoras, the Melian, is condemned at Athens for teaching athe-

ism, iii. 246.

Dialects. The four dialects of the Greeks, ii. 264.

Dicearchus, formerly admiral of Philip, king of Macedonia, and accomplice with Scopas in the conspiracy against Ptolemy Epiphanes, vi. 320.

Dicearchus, brother of Thoas, general of the Ætolians. He is de-

puted by them to Antiochus, vi. 332.

Didas, governor of Paeonia, puts Demetrius to death, by order of Philip, vii. 82.

Dido; her history, i. 223.

Dinocrates, architect, he presides in building the temple of Diana at Ephesus, v. 98; singular design of a temple proposed by him to Ptolemy Philadelphus, vi. 113.

Dinomenes, one of the commanders of the army sent by the Syra.

cusans to the aid of Marcellus, viii. 46.

Dinon, governor of Damascus, vi. 196.

Diocles, one of the generals of the Syracusans; his advice concerning the Athenians taken prisoners in Sicily, is. 278.

Diocles, Ætolian, takes Demetrias, vi. 342.

Diodorus, Athenian, opposes the putting to death of the inhabitants of Mitylene, iii. 200.

Diogenes the Cynic refuses to be initiated in the mysteries of Ceres Eleusina, i. 32; he receives a visit from Alexander the Great, v. 88. Diogenes, Stoic philosopher, is sent on an embassy to Rome by the

Athenians, vii. 218. Diognetus, admiral of Antiochus the Great, vi. 196.

Diomedon, one of the generals condemned by the Athenians to die for having left the bodies unburied of those who were killed in the battle of Arginusae. His speech before his death, iii. 309.

Dion of Syracuse; his character and friendship w th Plato, iv. 185; he persuades Dionysius the elder to have some conversation with Plato, 186; his marriage with Arete, daughter of Dionysius 203; his magnanimous generos ty to Dionysius the Younger, 208; he becomes odious to the courtiers, ibid.; Dion induces Dionysius to invite Plato to his court, 211; the courtiers spare no pains to discredit him with Dionysius, 214; he is banished, 215; he resides at Athens, 217; he visits the other cities of Greece, ibid.; Dinnysius causes Dion's estates and effects to be sold, 219; and

his wife Arete marry Timocritus, 220; Dion determines

to attack him with open force, 221, &c.; he embarks his troope on board two merchant ships for Syrasuse, 222; he appears before the walls of the city, 224; success of his enterprise, ibid.; he defeats the troops of Dionys.us, 225; ingratitude of the Syrasus to Dion, 228; he retires to Leontium, ibid.; he is recalled by the Syrasusans, 230; he delivers Syrasuse, and pardons his enemies, 232, &c.; Dien enters the ottadel, which is surrendered to him by the son of Dionysius, and is reconciled to his wife Arete. 234; reflect on upon D.on's modesty, 235; he suffers Heraclides to be put to death, 236; Callippus conceives the design of assassinating Don. and puts it in execution, ibid. &c.

Dion, famous philosopher, sent by the Egyptians ambassador to

Rome agains: Polemy Auletes vii. 138.

Dionysius the Elder, tylant of Syracuse. His peculiar characteristic. iv. 171; means which he uses for possessing himself of the tyranny ibid.; he is appointed generalissimo with unlimited power, 176; he succeeds in having guards assigned him, ibid.; and establishes himself tyrant, 177; attempts at Syracuse and in Sicily against him, 178; he makes preparations for a war with the Carthaginians, 182, &c.; the people of Rhegium refuse to ally themselves with the tyrant, 184; he marries two wives at the same time, 185; his friendship and deference for Dion, ibid.; he besieges and takes Motya, 188; he is defeated at sea, 189; the Syracusan troops gain an advantage over the Carthaginians in the absence of Dionysius, 191; new movements at Syracuse against him, ibid.; he entirely defeats the Carthaginians, and obliges them to quit Sic ly, 193, &c.; he punishes the inhabitants of Rhegium, 194, &c.; violent passion of Dionysius for poetry, 196, 291; reflections upon that taste of his, 196, &c.; he sends his brother Theurides to Olympia to contest in his name the prizes of the chariot-race and poetry, ibid.; new enterprises of Dionysius against the Carthaginians 202; he carries the prize of poetry at Athens, 203; death of Donysius, 204; his character, ibid., &c.

Dionys us the Younger succeeds his father, iv. 207; his conduct in the beginning of his reign, 210; his good qualties, ibid.; Dion induces Dionysius to cause Plato to come to his court 211; in what manner Plato is received there, 212; wonderful change occasioned by the presence of that philosopher, 213; Dionysius banishes Dion, 215; he dismisses Plato. 216; he presses him to return to Syracuse, with which Plato complies, 218; Dionysius grants Plato permission to return into Greece, 220; embassy from Dionysius to Don, who had possessed himself of Syracuse, 225; defeat of Dionysius's troops. ibid.; method which he uses for rendering Dion suspected, 226; he retires into Italy, 227; he reascends the throne. 244; Lectas obliges him to shut himself up in the citadel of Syracuse, 245; Dionysius treats with Timoleon, who sends him to Corinth, 246, &c.; wise answer of Dionysius to

a stranger, 248.

Diophanes, Achaean, compels Selèucus to raise the siege of Perga-

naus, vi. 359

Diopithes, ehief of the colony sent by the Athenians into the Chersonesus, makes an irruption into the lands of Philip king of Macedonia, v. 35 he is accused by Philip's pensioners, and defended by Demosthenes, 26.

Discoboli. These who exercised themselves in throwing the discus,

Discus. Kind of athletic combat, i. 56.

Distribution of lands institutued at Sparta by Lyeurgus, ii. 270; reflections upon that institution, 277.

Divinity. Idea of the Divinity implanted in the hearts of all mankind, vi. 64.

Dodanim, the fourth of the sons of Javan, ii. 256.

Dodona, Oracle of Dodona, i. 87.

Dolphins, machine of war, iii. 267.

Domitius Ænobarbus sent commissioner by the Romans into Achaia, where he commits the most enormous oppressions, vii. 209, &c.

Donations. How regulated by Solon, ii. 295.

Dorie dialect, ii. 264.

Dorimachus, general of the Ætolians, vi. 212.

Doris, country of ancient Greece: origin of its inhabitants, ii. 264.

Dor.s, wife of Donysus the Elder, iv. 184.

Dorylaus, one of Mithridates's generals, is defeated by Sylla in the plains of Orshomenus, viii. 84.

Doryphori. Body of troops, guards of the kings of Persia, ii. 213. Draco, legislator of Athena, ii. 288; his laws are annulled by Solon, 291.

Drypetis, Hephaestion's widow. She is destroyed perfidiously by Roxana, v. 314.

Duilius, consul, commands the first fleet fitted out by the Romans, i. 258; he is the first of the Romans who triumphed for a victory at sea, 259.

Dymnus conspires against Alexander, v. 201; he runs himself through with his sword, 202.

Dynasty of Egypt, i. 171.

Dyrrachium. Sce Epidamnum.

E.

BCBATAWA, capital city of Media. Foundation and description of that city, ii. 77.

Ecnomus, a city of Sicily, famous for a victory of the Romans over

the Carthagiuians, i. 260. Education of children amongst the Persians, ii. 97; at Sparta, 272; in Crete, iv. 120; at Athens, 143; fatal effects of a bad education, especially to princes, ii. 247, &c.

Ection, admiral of the Athenians, is defeated by Clitus, commander of the Macedonian fleet, v. 320.

Egesimachus, officer in Alexander's army. Rashness that costs him his life, v. 241.

Egenta, city of Sicily. Its foundation, iii. 233; its inhabitants implement the aid of Athens against the Syracusans, 234.

Eggs, manner in which the Egyptians hatch them without hens, i. 164.

Egypt divided into three parts, i. 126; Upper Egypt, or Thebais, ibid.; Middle Egypt, or Heptanomis, 127; Lower Egypt, or Delta, 141; fertility of Egypt, 166; Egyptian monarchy, 171; Egypt subjected by the Persians, ii. 180; and afterwards by the Macedonians, v. 156.

E.gyptians. Manners and customs of the Egyptians, i. 145; of their fixings and government, ibid.; of their laws, 147; of the priests and religion of the Egyptians, 150; absurd worship of different divinities, 152; reasons for this worship, 154; funeral ceremomies, 157; of the soldiery and wars of the Egyptians, 160; of the manner in which they cultivated the arts and sciences, 161; of their husbandmen, shepherda, and artisans, 162.

Eion, city of Thrace; unhappy fate of that city, iii. 108. Elataea, city of Phoes, falls into Philip's hands, v. 51.

Eleazar, Sman's brother, high-priest of the Jews, exercises that

office during the minority of Onias, vi. 32.

Eleazar, doctor of the law, prefers death to cating impure meats,

vii. 107.

Kleazar, one of the sons of Mattathias, sacrifices himself in a battle

to deliver his people, vii. 253.

Eleazar, of the sect of the Phar-sees, forms a false accusation against Hyrcanus, vi. 299.

Electryon, king of Mycense, ii. 259.

Elecusis, a small city of Attica where the Athenians celebrated a feast in honour of Ceres, i. 31.

Elis, province of Peloponnesus, where the Olympic games were celebrated, i. 47, ii. 252.

Elisa.—See Dido.

Elishah, son of Javan, settles in Peloponnesus, ii. 256.

Elos, city in the terr tory of Sparta, subjected by the Lacedsemonians, i. 100.

Elymas, a city of Pers'a, supposed to be very rich, vii. 117.

Embalming. Manner of embalming bodies amongst the Egyptians, i. 157.

Emilius (Paulus) is chosen consul, vii. 166; he sets out for Macedodonia, 170; exact and severe discipline which he establishes in his army, 175; he gains a famous victory over Perseus near the city of Pydna, 183, &c.; he pursues Perseus in his flight, 185; that prince puts himself into his hands, 189; Paulus Emilius is continued in the command of the army in Macedonia, 191; during the winter-quarters he visits the most famous cities of Greece, 192; upon he return to Amphipolis, he imparts to the Macedomians the regulations made by himself and the senate in respect to Macedonia, 195, &c.; he gives a great feast there, 196; he sets out for Rome, and passes through Epirus, the cities of which he abandons to be plundered by the troops, 197; he enters Rome in triumph, 198.

Bimilius, deputy from the Romans, goes to Ph lip. who was besieging Abydos, and exhorts him in the name of the senate to lay down his arms, vi. 280; he goes to Egypt to take possess on of the guardianship of the king in the name of the Roman people,

281.

Emilius (L. Panlus) is elected consul with Varro, i. 311; he is kill-

ed at the battle of Cannae, 314.

Emil us (Q.) gives Pyrrhus advice of the design to poison him, vi. 84. Empedoeles, of Agrigentum, Pythagorean philosopher, having gained the prize in the Olympie games, regales the people, i. 64.

Empires - See kingdom.

Ena, a very r ch temple in Media, vi. 269.

Epaminondas, Theban, his character, iv. 262; his conduct in the conspiracy against the tyrants of Thebes, 264; he goes to Sparts to treat of peace, 275; he gams a great victory over the Lacedsemonians near Leuetra, 278; he ravages Laconia, 281; and advances to the gates of Sparta, ibid.; at his return he is accused before the people and acquitted, 284; he marches against Alexander, tyrant of Pherae, and delivers Pelopidas out of his hands. 294; he returns to Thebes, ib.d.; he is placed at the head of the Theban army, 299; his second attempt against Sparts, ibid.; his famous victory at Mantinea, 302; he is mortally wounded in th battle, 303; his death, 304; and praise, ibid. &c.

Bperatus, by the credit of Apelles, Philip's minister, is appointed general of the Achaeana, vi. 215; he is held in universal con-

tempt, 228.

Ephesus, city of Ionia, ii. 254.

Ephialtes, orator, endeavours to prevent the Athenians from aiding

the Lacedaemonians, iii. 128.

Ephori, magistrates of Sparta: their institution, ii. 268; their authority, ibid.

Epicerdus, of Cyrene. His generosity to the Athensans, iv. 354.

Epic poem, its origin, i. 71.

Epicrates, one of the generals of Antiochus the Cyzicenian, betrays the interests of that prince, and treats secretly with Hyrcanus, vii. 298.

Epicrates, porter at Athens. Raillery of that Athenian upon the

deputies that had been sent into Persia, iv. 289.

Epicydes, Athenian. His little courage and avarice, iii. 40, he suf-

fers himself to be brought over by Themistocles, ibid.

Epicydes, Carthaginian, sent by Hannibal to Hieronymus, remains with that prince, viii. 38; after the death of Hieronymus, he demands to return to Hannibal, 41; he is elected magistrate of Syracuse, 44; he marches to the aid of Leontium. and is put to flight by Marcellus, 45; he usurps the supreme author ty at Syracuse, after having caused the magistrates to be put to death, 46; he retires to Agrigentum, when he sees Marcellus master of Syracuse, 55.

Epidamnum, or Dyrrachium a maritime city of Macedonia, iii. 144.

Epipolae. part of the city of Syracuse, iii. 248.

Epirus. Geographical description of it, ii. 252; history of its kings, i. 119.

Episthenes of Amphipolis, officer in the army of Cyrus the Younger, iii 346.

Equality It is the soul of popular governments, ii. 290; it is the

basis and tie of liberty, iv. 120.

Erasinides, one of the Athenian captains who gained the battle of Arg nusse, iii. 305; on his return he is condemned to die with his colleagues, 309.

Erasistratus, physician, famous for his address and penetration in discover ng the cause of Antiochus's sickness, vi. 57.

Erectheus, king of Athens, ii. 260.

Eretria, city of Euboea, supports the Ion ans in their revolt against the Persians, ii. 357; it is destroyed by the Persians, iii. 9.

Erginus, Corinthian, supplies Aratus with the means of seizing the

citadel of Corinth, vi. 135.

Esarhaddon ascends the throne of Assyria, ii. 64; he makes himself masser of Babylon and the land of Israel, ibid.; he carries away Manasseh, king of Judah. 65; his death, ibid.

Esculations, inventor of medicine, ii. 226; his knowledge occasions

his being ranked in the number of the gods, ibid.

Esther causes the fatal ediet of Ahasuerus sgainst the Jews to be reworked. il. 202, 331.

Etolia,—See Ætolia.

Etolans.—See Ætolians.

Evagoras. king of Salamis: brief history of that prince, iv. 50; his war with Artaxerxes Mnemon, 52; character and panegyric of Evagoras, 54.

Evagoras, son of Nicocles, is deprived of the throne of Salamia by Protagoras, iv. 336; he demands in vain to be reinstated, 339; tragical end of that prince, ibid.

Evalens, general of the Lecodnemonian cavalry, is killed in a battle

by Pyrrhus, vi. 96.

Evander of Crete, general of the auxiliaries to Persues, is sent by that prince to assessinate Eumenes, vii. 135; he prevents Perseus from improving the advantage he had gained over the Romans, 150; attachment of Evander to Perseus, 186; that prince causes him to be killed, 188.

Enbos, isle of Grecce, ii. 254; subjected by the Athenians, iii. 143; the Lacedaemonians seize it, 291; Antiochus takes that island, vi. 348; it is soon after taken from him by the consul Asilius, 353.

Euchidae, of Plataea, undertakes to bring the sacred fire from Delphi, iii. 72; he dies at his return, 73.

Euclid of Megara, founder of the Megarean sest, his ardour to hear Socrates, iv. 77.

Euclidas, Lacedaemonian. His brother Cleomenes, king of Sparta, makes him reign with him, vi. 162; he is routed at the buttle of Selasia, where he commanded part of the army, 178.

Eudamidas, Lacedaemonian, commands in the war against Olynthus,

iv. 258

Evilmerodach, king of Babylon, ii. 72.

Eulaeus, eunuch. Bad education which he gives Ptolemy Philome-

tor, whose governor he was, vii. 95.

Eumenes, general in Alexander's army. Provinces that fell to him after that 'prince's death, v. 312; his marriage with Barsina, 314; he retires to Perdiceas. who puts him into possession of Cappadocia, 331; victory of Eumenes over Neoptolemus, and then over Craterus and Neoptolemus together, 333; he kills the latter with his own hand in the battle, 334; he is defeated by Antigonus, and retires into the eastle of Nora, where he is bosieged, 337; he is betrayed by his troops, 368; delivered up to Antigonus, ibid.; and put to death, 369; praise of Eumenes, ibid.

Eumenes I. nephew of Philetaerus, succeeds his uncle in the kingdom

Cumenes I. nephew of Philetaerus, succeeds his uncle in the kingdom of Pergamus, vi. 104; he gains a great victory over Autiochus Soter, who came to possess himself of his dominions, 105; he atacks Antiochus Hierax, who was engaged in a war against his brother, 123; he abandons himself to excesses, which occasion his

death, ibid.

Eumenes II. succeeds his father Attalus in the kingdom of Pergamus, vi. 304; he refuses the alliance of Antiochus, 534; he is VOL. VIII.

besieved in his capital by Seleucus, 359; the Romans deliver him. ibid.; dispute between Eumenes and the Rhodians, concerning the Greek cities of Asia, v. 12, &c.; he offers a considerable sum to the Achaeans, and with what view, 39; war of Eumenes with Prusias, 55; and Pharnaces. 60; he sends deputies to Rome to complain of Philip, 61; he goes to Rome himself to inform the Romans of the secret intrigues of Perseus, 133; Perseus endeavours to rid himself of Eumenes, first by assassination, 135; and then by poison, 136; Eumenes gives car to the proposals of Perseus, 171; he is suspected by the Romans, and cannot obtain permission to enter Rome, 213; the senate sends commissioners to inquire into his conduct, 214; death of Eumenes, 215; his panegyric, 216; famous I brary founded by him at Pergamus ibid.

Eumolpidae, priests of Ceres, successors of Eumolpus, who first ex-

ercised that office, i. 32.

Eunomus king of Sparta is killed in a popular commotion, i. 101. Eunuchs. The use of them introduced by Cyrus in the East, ii. 156; influence and power which they acquired with their princes, 157. Buphaes, king of Messenia, is attacked by the Lacedaemonians, i. 103;

he is wounded in battle near Ithoma, 104; adjudges the prize of

valour to Aristomenes, 106; he dies of his wounds, ibid.

Eupolis, comic poet, i. 84. Euripidas heads a detachment of the Elacans to ravage the territory of Sievon, vi. 213: he falls into the hands of Philip, ibid.

Euripides, tragic poet, i. 75; character of that poet, 77. Euriptodemus takes upon him the defence of the generals condemn-

ed by the Athenians after the battle of the Arginusae iii 311. Eury biades, Lacedae monian, is appointed generalissimo of the Greeks. in preference to Themistocles, iii. 43; the latter persuades him to fight in the straits of Salamis, 54; the Lacedaemonians decree him the prize of valour, 60.

Eurydice, wife of Amyntas, king of Macedonia, prevails upon Iphicrates, by her intreaties, to reinstate her children upon the throne

of their father, v. 3.

Eurydice, wife of Aridaeus. Olympias causes her to be put to death. v. 356.

Eurydice, Athenian, wife of Ophellas, v. 384; after her husband's death she marries Demetrius, ibid.

Eurydice, widow of Ptolemy Soter, marries her daughter Ptolemais to Demetrius, vi. 37.

Euryelus, an eminence near Syracuse, leading to Epipolae, iii. 249. Eurylochus, chief magistrate of the Magnetes, influences them

against the Romans, vi. 339.

Eurymedon, general of the Athenians, is condemned to pay a great fine, and why, iii. 232; he goes into Sicily to the aid of Nicias. 263; he is killed in a battle, 272.

Eurysthenes, king of Sparta, i. 100.

Eurytion, or Eurypon, king of Sparta, renounces some part of the absolute power of the kings in favour of the people, i. 101.

Euthyerates, chief magistrate of Olynthus, puts that city into Philip's.

hands, v. 27.

Euthydemus, appointed by the Athenians to command jointly with Nicias, forces that general to engage in a sea-fight, wherein he is worsted, jii. 267.

Enthydemus, king of Bactria, makes an honourable peace with Antiochus, who intended to dethrone him, vi. 271.

Exemption, or immunities, granted by the Athenians to those who had rendered their country great services, iv. 853.

Exenetus, of Agrigentum, victor in the Olympic games, enters that

city in triumph, iv. 172. Exiles, name given the citizens expelled by Nabis from Sparta, vi. 213; supported by the Achseans, they commit great cruelties at Sparts, vii. 27; they accuse the Achaeans at Rome, 45; conse-

quence of that accusation, 49, &c. Ezra obtains permission of Artaxerxes Longimanus to return to Jerusalem, iii. 119; he arranges the Holy Scriptures into their pre-

per order, 121.

F.

FABIUS MAXIMUS (Quintius) is appointed dictator, i. 307; his cautions conduct in respect to Hannibal, ibid., &c.; the people give Minucius, general of the horse, equal power with him, 310; Fabius extricutes him out of a danger in which his ill conduct had engaged him, ibid.

Fabius Maximus, son of Paulus Emilius, distinguishes himself in the

war against Perseus, vii. 178.

Fables. Authors to whom the invention of them is ascribed, ii. 319; use of fables in respect to the education of children, 321, &c.

Fabricius is deputed by the Romansto Pyrrhus, vi. 78; he commands in the war against that prince, 83.

Pamine in Egypt in the time of the emperor Trajan, i. 169.

Fannius (C.), Roman officer, distinguishes himself at the siege of Carthage, ii. 22.

Festivals, celebrated at Athens, i. 27, &c.; and at Lacedaemon, iii.

Fimbria, commander of the Romans in Asia, defeats the troops of Mithridates, viii. 85; he kills Flaccus, seizes that consul's army, and marches against Mithridates, 87; upon being abandoned by his troops, he kills himself in despair, 89.

Flaccus (L. Valerius) is elected consul, and marches against Mith-

ridates, viii. 83; he is killed by Fimbria, 87.

Flamininus (Quintius) is deputed by the Romans to Prusias, i. 343; he is elected consul, and marches against Philip, king of Macedonia, vi. 291; he gains a first advantage over that prince, 295; different expeditions of Flamininus in Phocis, ibid. ; he is continued in the command as proconsul, 300, he has an ineffectual interview with Philip, 302; he gains a great victory over that prince near Scotusa and Cynoscephale, 308; and concludes a peace with him, 312; honours and applauses which he receives in the Isthmian games, 315; he makes war against Nabis, 323; besieges him in Sparta, 326; and grants him peace, 327; he enters Rome in triumph, 330.

Plaminius (C.), consul, marches against Hannibal, i. 304; he is de-

feated and killed near the lake of Thrasymene, 306. Four hundred men invested with all authority at Athens, and abuse

it tyrannically, iii. 289; their power is annulled, 292.

Fulvia, Anthony's wife, very active at Rome for her husband's interests, viii. 158.

Funerals. Funeral ceremonies in Egypt, i. 157; at Athens, iii. 182.

G.

GABINIUS, Pompey's lieutenant, subjects part of Syria. viii. 126: he commands there as proconsul, 141; upon the earnest request of Pompey, he re-establishes Ptolemy Auletes upon the throne of Egypt, 142

Gadatas, prince of Assyria, submits to Cyrus, ii. 119.

Gala, Masinissa's father, joins the Carthaginians against the Romans, ii. 1.

Galatia, or Gallo-Graecia, a province of Asia Minor, inhabited by the Gauls after their irruption into Greece, vi. 65.

Galba. Fine saying of that emperor, v. 341.

Galley .- See Ship.

Games, part of the religion of the ancients, i. 46; solemn games of Greece—the Olympic, the Pythian, the Nemacan, the Isthmian, 47, &c.; rewards granted to the victors in those games, 63; ladies admitted to dispute the prize in the Olympic games, ibid.; iv. 44.

Ganymedes, Ptolemy's ennuch, supplants Achillas, and becomes prime minister of Egypt in his place, viii. 150; his stratagems against Caesar during his war in Egypt, ibid.

Gaos, admiral to Artaxerxes, revolts against that prince, and on

what occasion, iv. 57.

Gardens. Hanging gardens of Babylon, ii. 50.

Gaugamela or Camel's house, place famous for Alexander's second

victory over Darius, ii. 348.

They dispute the passage of the Alps with Hannibal, i. 294, &c.; irruption of the Gauls into Greece, vi. 61; their attempt against the temple of Delphi, 63.

Gaza, in Palestine, besieged and taken by Alexander, v. 154; destruction of Gaza by Alexander Jannaeus, vii. 321.

Gelanor, king of Argos, ii. 258.

Gela, city of Sicily iii. 334.

Gellias, citizen of Agrigentum, his noble use of riches, iv. 172.

Gelon possesses himself of supreme authority at Syracuse, iii. 156; reasons that prevent him from aiding the Greeks when attacked by Xerxes, 39; he defeats Hamilear, general of the Carthaginians, i. 282; the Syracusans proclaim him king, iii. 158; his wise conduct during his reign, 159, &cc. ; his death, 160; respect which the Syracusans retained for his memory, ibid.

Gelon, son of Hiero, espouses the party of the Carthaginians against

the Romans, vili. 261; he dies soon after, ibid.

Genius. Height to which the ancients carried genius, viii. 51. Gentius king of Illyrium, becomes suspected by the Romans, vii. 137 ; he makes an alliance with Perseus, 170 ; he declares against the Romans, and imprisons their ambassadors, 174; the Romans send the practor Anicius against him, 175; Gentius is obliged to throw himself at his feet, and implore his mercy, ibid.; Anicius

sends him to Rome with all his family, ibid. Geometry. People to whom the invention of that science is attri-

buted, i. 162.

Gergis, son of Ariazus, one of the six generals of Xerxes' army, iii. 37.

- Gigis, one of Parysatis's women, confesses the poisoning of Statira, iv. 15; she is put to death, ibid.
- Gisgo, son of Hamilear, is punished for his father's ill success, and is banished, i. 233.
- Gisgo, Carthaginian, endeavours to suppress the revolt of the mercenaries, i. 275; Spendius, their general, puts him to death, 278. Gisgo endeavours to prevent the Carthaginians from accepting the

conditions of peace proposed by Scipio, i. 331.

Glabr.o (Man. Acilius) obtains Bithynia and Pontus for his province, where Lucullus commanded before, viii. 116; his discourse on his arrival augments the licentiousness of Lucullus's troops, ibid. Glaucias, king of Illyrium, takes Pyrrhus under his protection, and

re-establishes him in his dominions, vi. 27.

Glauco, a young Athenian, desirous of having a share in the administration of the public affairs, iv. 77; Socrates, in a conversation,

obliges him to own his meanacity for them, 78.

Gobryas, an Assyrian nobleman, puts himself and family under the protection of Cyrus, i. 119; he puts himself at the head of a body of troops at the siege of Babylon, 149; Gobryas enters into the conspiracy against Smerdis the Magian, 347; his interpretation of the present given Parius by the Scythians, ibid.

Gobryas, a Persiau nobleman, commands in the army of Artaxer-

xes, at the battle of Cunaxa, iii. 342.

Gob. Answer of Simonides to a prince who asked him what Gob was, ii 162; one supreme Gob acknowledged by Socrates, iv. 80. Gordion, capital city of Phrygia, famous for the chariot to which the

Gordian knot was tied, which Alexander cut, v. 102.

Gorgias, sophist, is sent deputy from the Leontines to Athens to

demand aid against the Syracusans, iii. 232.

- Gorgias, officer of Antiochus Epiphanes, marches with Nicanor against Judas Maccabaeus, vii. 113; his troops are put to flight, 115.
- Gorgidas, Theban, joins Pelopidas to expel the tyrants of Thebes, iv. 268.
- Government. Different kinds of government, iv. 111; which would be the most perfect, 112; aim and end of all government, ibid.
- Gracehus (Tiberius) distinguishes himself at the siege of Carthage, ii. 22; being tribune of the people, he proposes a law concerning the will of Attalus, and is killed soon after, vii. 282.

Grannicus, river of Phrygia, famous for the victory of Alexander over the Persians. v. 93

Greece, Greeks. Geographical description of ancient Greece, ii. 252; history of Greece divided into four ages, 254, vii. 237; primitive origin of the Greeks, ii. 255; different states of which Greece was composed, 258; migrations of the Greeks into Asia Minor, 262, &c.; settlements of the Greeks in Sicily, ii. 233; manners and customs of the Greeks in Sicily, iv. 111, &c.; republican government instituted almost universally in Greece, ii. 265; Monsieur Bossuet's reflections upon that kind of government, v. 304; love of liberty, the pesuliar characteristic f the Greeks. vii. 242; different kind of troops that composed the armies of the Greek, iv. 152; ships, and naval forces, 155; people of Greece very wark ke in all times, 148; origin and cause of sourage and military virtue amongst the Greeks, 149; religi

of the Greeks, i. 24; of the auguries, 35; of the oracles, 37; famous games and combats of Greece, 46; difference of taste of the Greeks and Romans in respect to public shows, 66; disputes for the prize of wit, shows, and representations of the theatre, 104; illustrious men who distinguished themselves most in arts and sciences amongst the Greeks, is. 305; dislects of the Greeks, 264.—See the articles Athenians and Laced monians, for what relates to the wars of Greece with the Persians and Macedonians.-Greece becomes a Roman province, vir. 233; reflections upon the causes of the grandeur, decline, and ruin of Greece, 237, &c.

Grypus.—See Antiochus Grypus.

Gulussa, son of Masimissa, divides the kingdom with his two bro-

thers after his father's death, il. 32.

Gyges kills Candaules, king of Lydia, whose principal officer he was, and ascends the throne in his stead, ii. 85; what Plato, says of his

ring, ibid.

Gylippus, Lacedsemonian, goes to the aid of Syracuse, besieged by the Athenians, iii. 258; his arrival in Sicily changes the face of things, 259; he obliges the Athenians to surrender at discretion, 278; his sordid avarice sullies the glory of his great actions,

Gymnastic, art of forming the athletae, i. 50.

Gynaecaea, or apartments of the ladies amongst the Greeks, i. 49.

HEXUS, mountain between Thrace and Thessaly, viii. 81.

Hair of Berenice, vi. 119.

Haliartus, city of Bosotia, sides with Perseus, vii. 142; the practor Lucretius takes and entirely demolishes it, 155.

Halicarnassus, city of Doris, ii. 254; besieged and taken by Alexander, v. 99.

Halyattes, king of Lydia, ii. 86; war of that prince with Cyarares, ibid.; he continues the siege of Miletus begun by his father, ibid.; he raises the siege of that city, and wherefore, \$7.

Hamilear commands the army sent by the Carthaginians into Sicily at the request of Xerxes, i. 232, iii. 156; it is defeated by Gelon,

tyrant of Syracuse, ibid. his death, i. 232.

Hamilear, son of Gyscon, commands the Carthaginian army against Agathocles, and gains a great victory over him, i. 245; he falls alive into the hands of the Syracusans whilst besieging their city,

251; he is put to death, ibid.

Hamilear, surnamed Barca, general of the Carthaginlans, i. 270: boldness and ability of that general, ibid.; he commands the army against the mercenaries, 278; and defeats them entirely, 279; he goes to Spain, which he conquers in a short time, 285; he is killed in a battle, 286.

Hamilear, surnamed Rhodanus, a Carthaginian, goes into the camp of Alexander by order of Carthage, i. 251; at his return he is

put to death, ibid.

Hannibal, son of Gisso, is placed at the head of the troops sent by the Carthaginians into Sicily to the aid of the people of Segesta, il. 233; actions of that general in Sicily, 234; he dies there of the plague, 235.

Transibal commands the Carthaginian fleet, and is defeated by the consul Duilius, i. 259; he besieges the mercenaries in Tunis, 280; he falls into their hands and is crucified, ibid.

Hannibal, surnamed the Great, at nine years of age goes with his father, who was sent to command in Spain, i. 283; he sappointed to command there after Andrubai's death, 286; after several conquests he besieges Saguntum, 288; and takes it, ibid.; he prepares for his march into Italy, 290; he goes to Cadiz, and with what view, ibid.; he begins his march, 291; his expeditions as far as the Rhone, ibid.; he passes that river, 292; his march afterwards, 293; he passes the Alps, 295; he enters Italy, 297; he defeats the Romans near the river Ticinus, 298, &c.; then at Trebia, 302; he marches to Tuscany, 304; he loses an eye in passing the Apennines, 305; he gains a battle near the take of Thrasymene, 306; he concludes a treaty with Phinp, and sends ambassadors to him, vi. 232; his conduct in regard to Fabius, i. 307; his manner of extricating himself from the wrong step he had taken at Cassilinum, 309; he gains a famous victory near Cannae, 311, &c. ; he sends deputies to Carthage, with the news of his victory, and to demand reinforcements, 315; he winters at Capua, 316; and suffers the courage of his troops to be enervated by the luxury of that place, 317; he makes a treaty with Mieronymus, viii. 38.

Bad success of Hannibal, i. 317; he lifes to the aid of Capua, besieged by the Romans, 319; to make a diversion, he marches suddenly back against Rome, ibid.; after various attempts, he abandons that enterprise, 320; he is recalled into Africa, 326; he has an interview with Scipio, 328; followed by a battle in which he is defeated, 329; he escapes to Carthage, ibid.; he causes a peace to be concluded with the Romans, 330; he undertakes and effects the reformation of the courts of justice and finances at Carthage, 335; pursued by the Romans, he retires to Antiochus, 338; his discourse to that prince and the advice he gives him, ibid.; he goes into Syria and Phenicia to bring ships from thence, vi. 357; he is defeated at sea by the Rhodians, 359; he retires first to the island of Crete, i. 342; then to Prusias, ibid.; he does that prince great services, ibid.; betrayed by Prusias, he poisons himself, 343;

Hannibal's character and panegyric, 344.

Mannibal, young Carthaginian, sent to Hieronymus by Hannibal the

Great, viii. 38.

Hanno, citizen of Carthage, forms the design of making himself master of the commonwealth, 1. 244; he is discovered and punished, 245.

Hanno, Carthaginian, is placed at the head of the troops against

Agathocles, i. 248; he is killed in battle, 249.

Hanno, general of the Carthaginians, is defeated by the Romans near the islands Ægates, i. 272, &c.; the Carthaginians give him the command of their troops against the mercenaries, 277; the command is taken from him, ibid.; the Carthaginians place him again at the head of their troops, 281; Hanno opposes in vain the undertaking of the second Punic war, 286.

Harmodius conspires against the tyrants of Athens, ii. 301; his death, ibid.; statues erected in honour of him by the Athenians,

203.

Harmonia, wife of Themistus, is put to death by order of the pesple of Syracuse, viii. 42.

Harpagus, officer of Astyages, is ordered by that prince to make away with Cyrus, ii. 177; rage of Astyages upon discovering that Harpagus had disobeyed his orders, and the revenge he takes on

Harpalus, governor of Babylon for Alexander, quits the service of that prince, and retires to Athens, v. 270; he succeeds in bribing

Demosthenes with his presents, 272; the Athenians drive Harps-

lus out of their city, bid. Harpates, son of Tiribasus, assassinates Arsames by order of Ochus,

iv. 319. Hecataeus, one of Alexander's officers, causes Attalus to be assas-

sinated by that prince's order, v. 84.

Hegelochus, Physcon's general, defeats the Alexandrians, and takes their general Marsyas prisoner, vii. 290.

Hegelipyla, wife of Miltiades, and mother of Cimon, iii. 3.

Hegetorides, Thasian, exposes his life for the safety of his city, besieged by the Athenians, iii. 112.

Helena, daughter of Tyndarus, and wife of Menelaus, carried away

by Paris, son of Priam king of Troy, ii. 261.

Helenus, son of Pyrrhus, accompanies his father to the siege of Argos, vi. 97; he enters the city with a body of troops, which occasions a confusion, in which his father perishes, 98.

Helepolis, machine of war invented by Demetrius, vi. 8.

Helicon of Cyzicus, mathematician, iv. 219.

Heliodorus, prime minister to Seleucus Philopator, goes to Jeruslem, to take away the treasures of the temple, vii. 86; chastisement which he receives from God on that account, 87; he poisons Seleucus and usurps the crown, 88; he is expelled by Eumenes, 89.

Heliopolis, city of the Lower Egypt, famous for its temple dedicated to the sun, i. 141; furious actions of Cambyses there, 143.

Hellanodicae, name of those who presided in the athletic games of Greece, i. 52.

Hellen, son of Deucalion, king of Thessaly, from whom the Greeks derive their name Ealnves, ii. 262.

Hellespont, strait between Europe and Asia, iii. 33.

Helots. Origin and condition of the Helots, i. 100; cruelties of the Lacedaemonians in respect to them, ii. 236; revolt of the Helots

against the Lacedaemonians, iii. 128.

Remerodromi. Runners or couriers among the Greeks, vi. 283. Hephaestion, Alexander's favourite. Mistake of the captive princesses in respect to him, v. 121; he receives a wound at the hattle of Arbela, 172; Alexander makes him marry Darius's youngcat daughter, 269; his death, 275; Alexander's esteem for that favourite, ibid.; extraordinary honours which that prince causes to be paid him after his death, 278, &c.

Heptanomis, or Middle Egypt, description of it, i. 127. Heraclea, city of Pontus. Tyrants who governed it, i. 120; destruction of that city by Cotta, viii. 104.

Hiracles, in Ætolis, besieged and taken by the comul Acilius, vi 353, &c.

Heracles, wife of Zoippus, of the family of Hiero, is managered with her children, by order of the people of Syraouse, viii. 43.

Heraclidae, or descendants from Hercules. They succeed the Aty. adae in the kingdom of Lydia, ii. 84; they seize Peloponnesus, and are soon after driven out of it, 259; they re-enter Peloponnesus, and serze Lacedaemon, 261; they endeavour to oppose the aggrandizement of the Athenians, who defeat them in a battle, 263,

Heracades, minister of Seuthes, king of Thrace. His perfidy, iv. 10. Heraclides, exile of byracuse, comes to the aid of his country against Dionysius, jv 226; the Syracusans choose h m admiral, ibid.; his envy of Dion, 227; he is obliged to call in Dion to the aid of Syracuse, 232; and to put himself into his hands, 233. Dion restores him the command in chief by sea, 234; Heraclides renews his intrigues against Dion, ibid.; Dion is obliged to suffer him to be killed 336.

Heraclides, Philip's minister, his character, vi. 290; Philip sacrifices him to gain the affection of the Macedonians, ibid.

Heraelides of Byzantium, is deputed by Antiochus to Scipio Afri-

canus, vii. 4. Herachdes, treasurer of the province of Babylon, is banished by Demetrius Soter, vii. 259; he is appointed by Ptolemy, Attalus and Ariarathes, to prepare Alexander Bala for personating the son of Antiochus Epiphanes, in order to his reigning instead of Demetrius, 263; he carries him to Rome, where he succeeds in caus-

ing him to be acknowledged king of Syria, ibid.

Herbessus, city of Sicily, iv. 179.

Hercules, son of Alexander and Barsina, v. S1+; is put to death by Polysperchon, 381.

Herippidas. Spartan. His too rigid exactness obliges Spithridates to abandon the party of the Lacedaemonians, iv. 33.

Hermias, Carian, is declared prime minister of Antiochus the Great,

vi. 186: his character, ibid.: he removes Epigenes, the most able of Antiochus's generals, 190; Antiochus causes him to be assassinated, ibid.

Flermocrates, Syracusan, encourages his citizens to defend themselves against the Athenians, iii. 252; he is elected general, ibid.

Hermolaus, officer in the train of Alexander, conspires against that prince, v. 230; he is discovered and punished, ibid.

Herod, Idumaean, is made governor of Galilee, vii. 384; he escapes from Jerusalem to avoid falling into the hands of the Parthians, 385; he goes to Rome, and is declared king of Judaes by the senate, ibid.; he forms the siege of Jerusalem, 336; he goes to Samaria, and espouses Mariamne, ibid.; he makes himself master of Jerusalem, and ascends the throne of Judaea, 137.

Herodicus, one of the principal persons of Thessaly. Unhappy fate

of that prince and his family, vii. 64.

Herodotus, Greek historian. His birth, iii. 22; applauses which he received at the Olympic games on reading his history there, i. 69.

Herodotus, friend of Demetrius, son of Philip, is sezed on that prince's account, vii. 82; he is put to the rack, and dies under the torture, ibid.

Hesiod, Greek poet, ii. 307.

Hezekiah, king of Judah, is cured miraculously, ii. 63; he shows the ambastadors of the king of Babylon his riches and his palace, ibid.; Gon monaces him by his prophet, ibid.; accomplishment of these threats, ibid.

Hidarnes, Persian of great quality, Statira's father, iii. 323. Hiempaal, son of Micipsa, king of Numidia, ii. 36; Jugurtha causes him to be murdered, 34.

Herax, of Antioch, becomes prime minister to Physicon, vii. 277; that prince puts him to death, ibid.

Hiero Is brother of Gelon, reigns after him in Syracuse, iii. 161; his character, ibid.; suspicions which he forms against his brother,

ibid.; he attracts learned men about him, 162; his goodness to the children of Anaxilaus, 164; his death, ibid.

Hiero II. His birth, viii. 20; he is chosen captain-general of the Syracusans, ibid.; and soon after elected king, 22; he quits the party of the Carthaginians, and esponses that of the Romans, 23; he aids the former against the mercenaries, 24; his pacific reign, 25; he particularly favours agriculture, ibid.; distinguished proofs which he gives of his attachment to the Romans in the second l'unic war, 28; he takes advantage of the skill of Archimedes who makes abundance of machines of war for him for the defence of a place, 30; galley which Archimedes builds for him, 33, &c.; he dies at a great age, much lamented by his people, 35.

Hierocles father of Hiero, causes his son to be exposed, and then to be brought back to his house, where he educates him with great

care, viii. 20.

Hieroglyphics. Signification of the word, i. 151.

Hieronymus, Hiero's grandson, reigns after him at Syracuse, and by his vices causes him to be much regretted, viii. 35, &c.; he makes an alliance with Hannibal, 38; he is killed in a conspiracy, ibid.

Hierophantes, name given the person who presided at the ceremony

of the feast of Eleusis, i. 32. Himeria, city of Soily. Its foundation, iii. 234; its destruction,

Mimilcon, Carthaginian general, comes to Sieily to drive the Romans out of it, viii. 51; he perishes there, 54.

Hippacra, city of Africa, refuses at first to join the mercenaries, i. 276; and joins them afterwards, 279.

Hipparchus, son of Pisistratus, governs at Athens after his father's

death, ii. 301; his taste for literature, ibul.; he is killed in the conspiracy of Harmodius and Aristogiton, ibid.

Hipparinus, brother of Dionysius, drives Callippus out of Syracuse,

and reigns there two years, iv. 239.

Hippias, son of Pis stratus, retains the sovereignty after the death of his father, ii. 301; he finds means to frustrate the conspiracy formed by Harmodius and Aristogiton, ibid.; he is compelled to quit Attica, and goes to settle in Phrygia, 303; he takes refuge in Asia with Artaphernes, 305, 356; he engages the Persians in the war against the Greeks, and serves them as a guide, iii. 9; he is killed at Marathon, fighting against his country, 12.

Hippocrates, famous physician. His great ability, ii. 227; his disin-

terestedness. iii. 185.

Hippnorates, native of Carthage, is sent by Hannibal to Hieronymys. and resides at his court, viii. 38; he becomes one of the principal magistrates of Syracuse, 41; he marches to the aid of Leontium, 45; and is forced to fly, ibid.; he and Epicydes possess themselves of all authority at Syracuse, 46; he makes war in the field against Marcellus, 51, 54; the plague destroys him and his troops, ibid.

Hipponax, satyric poet, known by his verses against Bupalus and Athenis, ii. 309.

Holofernes, general for the king of Assyria, marches against the Isracities, and besieges Bethulia, ii. 66; Judith cuts off his head, ibid.

Holofernes, supposed brother of Ariarathes, king of Cappadocia, dethrones han and reigns in his stead, viii. 11; he is driven out by Attalus, and retires to Antioch, ibid.; he enters into a conspiracy against Demetrius, his benefactor, ibid.; that prince imprisons him, 12.

Homer, famous poet, ii. 305, &c.; to what perfection he carried the species of poetry to which he applied himself, 306.

Hophra, king of Egypt.—See Apries.

Horses. The Horse, or the Knights, a comedy of Aristophanes, i. 82

Hoshea, king of Samaria, revolts against the king of Assyria, ii. 61; he is laden with chains by Salmanasar, and put in prison for the rest of his life, 6%.

Hyacinthus, feasts celebrated in honour of him at Lacedaemon, iii. 65.

Hybia, a city of Sicily, famous for its honey, iii. 234.

Hydarnes commands the Persians called the Immortals, in the army of Xerxes, iii. 37.

Hydraotes, a river of India, v. 248.

Hymereus, brother of Demetrius Phalereus, is delivered up to Antipater, who puts him to death, v. 323.

Hyperbolus, Athenian. His character, iii. 230; he endeavours to irritate the people against Nicias and Alcibiades, ibid.; he is banished by the ostracism, ibid.

Hypsicratia, one of the wives of Mithridates. Her masculine courage, viii. 129.

Hyreanians, people in the neighbourhood of Babylonia, subjected by

Cyrus, ii. 116.

Hyroanus, son of Joseph, is sent by his father to the court of Alexandria to compliment the king upon the birth of his son Philometor, vii. 38; he distinguishes himself there by his address and magnificence, ibid.

Hyreanus (John), son of Simon, is declared high-priest and prince of the Jews after his father's death, vii. 284; he is besieged by Antiochus Sidetes, in Jerusalem ibid.; and surrenders by capitulation, 285; he renders himself absolute and independent, 228; he renews the treaty with the Romans. 291; he augments his power in Judaea, 297; he takes Samaria and demolishes it, 298; he becomes an enemy to the Pharisees, 300; he dies 301.

Hyreanus, son of Alexander Jannaeus, is made high-priest of the Jews, vii. 326; after the death of Alexandra, he takes possession of the throne, 328; he is obliged to submit to Aristobulus his younger brother, 329; he has recourse to Pompey, who replaces him upon the throne, 333, &c.; he is again dethroned by Pacorus, son of Orodes, and delivered up to Antigonus, who causes his ears to be cut off, 335; the Parthians carry him into the East,

ibid. , he returns to Jerusalem, where Herod puts him to death ibid.

Hystaspes, father of Darius, governor of Persia, ii. 190.

Hystaspes, second son of Xerxes, is made governor of Bactrians. ii. 79; his remoteness from court makes way for his brother Artaxerxes to ascend the throne, ibid.; Artaxerxes undertakes to

reduce him, 102; and entirely ruins his party, ibid.

Hystigeus, tyrant of Miletus, prevails upon the generals of Ionia not to abandon Darius, then employed in a war with the Scythians, ii. 348; Darius grants him a territory in Thrace, where he builds a city, 350; that prince recals him to court, ibid.; Hystineus secretly supports the revolt of the lonians, 354; he forms a conspiracy against the government, 358; he is discovered, ibid.; he is taken by the Persians, delivered up to Artaphernes, and put to death, 360; character of Hystineus, ibid.

IACCHUS.—See Bacchus.

Jaddus, high-priest of the Jews, implores the protection of Gon against Alexander, v. 147; honours paid him by that prince, 148; his death, 337.

Islysus, founder of Rhodes, represented in a painting by Protogenes,

Jason, tyrant of Pherae, is declared generalissimo of the Thessalians, iv. 290; death puts a stop to his designs, ibid.

Jason supplants his brother Onias, high-priest of the Jews, vii. 90; he is supplanted himself by his brother Menelaus, 92; he takes Jerusalem, and obliges Menelaus to retire into the citadel, 96. Javan. or Ion, son of Japhet, father of all the people known under

the name of Greeks, ii. 255.

Iberians, people of Asia, subjected by Pompey, viii. 125,

Ibis. animal adored by the Egyptians, i. 152.

Lectas of Syracuse, tyrant of the Leontines, causes the wife and mother-in-law of Dion to be put to death, iv. 238; the Syracusans call in his aid against Dionysius, and elect him their general, 242; he conceives the design of making himself master of Syracuse, ibid.; and seizes great part of the city, 244; Timoleon marches against him, and obliges him to live as a private person in the city of the Leontines, 251; Icetas revolts against Timoleon, who punishes him and his son with death, 252.

Ichneumon, animal adored in Egypt, i. 155.

Idumaeans, people of Palestine. Hyrcanus obliges them to embrace

Judaism, vii. 322.

Jechonias, or Jehoiachim, king of Judah, is led captive to Babylon, ii. 68; he is set at liberty after an imprisonment there of thirtyseven years, "2.

Jehoaz, king of Judaes, led captive into Egypt, where he dies, i.

Jehoiachim is placed by Nechao upon the throne of Judaea in the room of his brother Jehoaz, i. 192; he is conquered by Nabuchodonosor, ii. 67; he revolts against that prince, 68; his death, ibid.

forusalem, city of Palestine, i. 24; taking of that city by Nechao, it is besieged by Senacherib, and miraculously delivered, ii.

166; it is besieged and taken by Nabuchodonosor, 67; its fortifications demolished by that prince, ibid.; and rebuilt by order of Artaxerxes, iii. 120 ; Alexander's entrance into Jerusalem, v. 148; it is besieged and taken by Ptolemy, 339; it is taken and plundered by Antiochus Epiphanes, vii. 96; its temple is profaned, ibid.; it is taken by Antiochus Sidetes, who causes its fortifications to be demolished, 284; Pompey takes Jerusalem by storm, \$52; Caesar permits its walls to be rebuilt, which Pompey had caused to be demalished, 324; Herod takes Jerusalem, 337.

JESUS CHAIST, his kingdom foretold by Daniel, ii. 166; contrast between the kingdoms of the world and the kingdom of CHAIST,

1 67.

Jews Massacre of the Jews by order of Senacherib, ii. 64; aversion of the Jews for the Samaritans, 65; captivity of the Jews at Babylon, and its duration, 67, &cc.; Cyrus's edict for their return to Jerusalem, 163; the rebuilding of their city opposed by the Samaritans, 164, 531; Darius confirms Cyrus's edict in their fayour, 931; his edict against the Jews revoked at the solicitation of Esther, 202; the Jews are confirmed in their priniteges by Xarxes, iii. 22; and afterwards by Artaxerxes, 119; Ochus carries a great number of Jews captive into Egypt, iv. \$39; the Jews refuse to submit to Alexander, v. 146; they obtain great privileges from that prince, 153; they refuse to work at the

building of the temple of Belus, 282.

The Jews settle at Alexandria in great numbers. v. 378; all those who were slaves in Egypt are set at liberty, vi. 67; the Jews submit to Antiochus the Grest, vi. 293; cruelties which they suffer from Antiochus Epiphanes, vii. 95, 103; they gain great victories under Judas Mascabaeus, first over the generals of that prince, then over those of Antiochus Eupator, and over himself in person, 111, 114, 251, 253; they make peace with Antiochus, 254; they gain new victories ever the generals of Demetrius Soter. 260; they are declared friends and allies of the Romans, 261; they build a temple in Egypt, 265, &c.; they revenge themselves on the inhabitants of Antioch, for the evils they had suffered from them, 270; they renew the treaties with the Romans, 273; they are subjected by Antiochus Sidetes, 285; history of the Jews under Aristobulus, 321; Alexander Jannaeus, 323; Alexandra, 326; Aristobulus, 329; Hyrcanus, 383; Antigonus, 856; the sovereignty over the Jews transferred to a stranger, 337.

Amilcon, son of Hanno, is sent lieutenant to Hannibal on his going to sommand in Sicily, i. 234; he takes Agrigentum, 236; he puts an end to the war by a treaty with Dionysius, and returns to Carthage, ibid.; he returns to Sicily at the head of an army, 238; the plague spreads in his army, 230; he is defeated by Dionysius, ibid.; he leaves his troops to the mercy of the enemy, and retires

to Carthage, where he kills himself, 240.

Immortality of the soul.—See Soul. Immunities.—See Exemption. Imposts.—See Tributes or Taxes.

Inachus, king of Argos, ii. 258.

Inarus, prince of the Libyans, is chosen king by the Egyptians, and supports their revolt against the Persians, iii. 115; he treats with VOL. VIII.

Megabysus, general of the Persians, and surrenders himself, 11; he is delivered to the mether of Artaxerxes, and put to death, 117. Indathyrsus, king of the Seythians, attacked by Darius, ii. 547; an-

indathyrsus, king of the Scythians, attacked by Darius, it. 547; answer of that prince to Darius, who sent to demand fire and water

from him, ibid.

India, region of Asia, divided into two parts, i. 22, v. 232; manners of its inhabitants, 233; rarities of that country. 234, &c.; history of the commerce with that country from Solomon's time to the present, i. 143, &c.; very singular dispute between two Indian women after the death of their common husband, v. 363; expeditions of Semiramis into India, si. 53; conquest of India by Darius, 351; then by Alexander. v. 235, &c.

Intuphernes a Persian lord. His insolence and punishment, ii. 325.

Interest of money amongst the Romans, viii. 101...

loles, second son of Antipater, and cup bearer to Alexander, is suspected of having poisoned that prince, v. 285.

Ion, son of Xuthus, who gave his name to Ionia, ii. 263.

Ion, favour te of Perseus, delivers up that prince's children to Octavius, vii. 189.

Jonathan, Jew and Sadducee, brings over Hyrcanus to his sect from

that of the Pharisees, vit. 800.

Jonathan, brother of Judas Maccabaeua, succeeds him in the government of Judaea, vii. 261; he accepts of the high-priesthood from Alexander Bala, and sids that prince against Demetrius Soter, 264; he undertakes to drive the Greeks out of the citadel which they had in Jerusalem, 269, &c.; Demetrius Nicator orders him to attend him upon that affair, ibid.; Jonathan aids that prince against the people of Antioch, 270; diagusted by the ingratitude of Demetrius, he declares for Antiochus Theos, 271; he suffers himself to be deceived by Tryphon, who puts him to death, 272.

Ionia, province of Asia Minor, ii. 254; from whom it takes its

name, ibid.

Ioniana. Revolt of the Ionians against Darius, ii. 352; they burn the city of Sardis. 357; their party is entirely ruined, 358; they throw off the Persian yoke after the battle of Salamis, and unite with the Greeks from thenceforth. iii. 77.

Joseph, son of Jacob, i. 175.

Joseph, Onias's nephew, is sent into Egypt to make his uncle's excuse to Ptolemy, vi. 126; his credit with Ptolemy, 127; that prince gives him the farming of the revenues of Coslosyria and Palestine without security, bid.

Josiah, king of Judah, marches against Nechao, is defeated and dies

of a wound he received n battle, i. 191.

Iphorates, Athen an, is sent to aid Coreyrs, iv. 272; he is placed at the head of the Gresian troops in the expedition of Artaxer-xes against Egypt, 311; he retires to Athens, where Pharnabasus causes him to be accused of making the expedition miscarry, 213; the Athenians employ him in the war with the allies, 325; he is accused by Chares, and cited to take his trial, 323; means which he employs for his defence, ibid.; he re-establishes Perdicess upon the throne of Macedonia, v. 3; praise of lphorates, iv. 325; military discipline which he establishes amongst the troops, ibid.

Ipsus, c ty of Phrygia, famous for the victory of Ptolemy, Cassander, Seleucus, and Lysimachus, over Antigonus and Demetrus, vi. 21

Irony attributed to Socrates, iv. 82.

Loadas, young Spartan. His great courage, iv. 300.

Isagoras, Athenian, forms a faction in Athens after the expulsion of

the tyrants, ii. 304.

Ischolas, Spartan, guards an important pass during the irruption of the Thebans into Laconia, and distinguishes himself in a peculiar **man**ner, iv. 281.

Isle, part of the city of Syracuse. Description of it, iii. 249.

Lamenias, Theban, is made prisoner with Pelopidas, by Alexander of Pherse, iv. 292; he is delivered by Epam nondss, 294.

Ismenius, Polemarch of Thebes, is seized by Leontides, and carried prisoner to the citadel, iv. 259; he is condemned and executed. **9**61.

Isocrates, Greak orator. Services which he endeavoured to render the Athenians by his writings, iv. 329; his death, v. 58.

Isocrates, Greek grammarian, is sent prisoner to Rome for having endeavoured to justify the assassination of Octavius, vii, 262.

Issus, city of Cilicia, famous for Alexander's victory over Darius, v.

Isthmian, solemn games of Greece, i. 48.

Italians massacred in Asis Minor by order of Mithridates, viii, 75.

Ithobal, king of Tyre, when besieged by Nabuchodonosor, ii. 69. Ithoma, a city of Messenia, famous for the battle fought there between the Messenians and Lucedaemonians, i. 103; the inhabitants of that bity subjected by the Lacedaemonians, 105.

Ituraea, part of Colosyria, vii. 522; the Ituraeans are compelled by

Aristobulus to embrace Judaism, ibid.;

Juba, I. king of Mauritania, is conquered by Caesar, and kills himself, ii. 40,

Juba IL son of the former, is led in Caesar's triumph whilst an infant, ii. 40; Augustus restores him the dominions of his father,

ibid.; literary works ascribed to this prince. ibid.

Judas, called Maccabaeus, third son of Mattathias, is chosen general by his father against Antiochus Epiphanes, vii. 110; he gains several great victories over that prince's generals, 111, &c. ; he retakes the temple, and dedicates it anew to the service of GoD. 116; he gains new advantages over the generals of Antiochus Eupator, and over that prince in person, 251; repeated victories of Judas Maccabaeus over the generals of Demetrius Soter, 260; he dies in battle fighting valuantly 261.

Judaes, region of Syria called also Palestine, i. 24.

Jugurtha, Masinissa's grandson, is adopted by Micipsa, and associated with the other children f that prince, ii. 33; he se zes the kingdom of Numidia, and puts one of the two princes, his brothers by adoption, to death, 34; he attacks the second w th open force, 35; besieges h m in Cirtha, b d.; the Romans declare war against him, ibid.; Jugurtha frustrates their efforts several times by bribes, 36; the Romans send Metellus first, and then Marius against him, who both gain many advantages over him. 37, &c. ; Jugurtha has recourse to Boechus his father-in-law, who gives him up to the Romans, 39; he is led in triumph, ib d.; and afterwards thrown into a deep dungeon, where he pershes miserably, 40.

Julius is sent deputy by the Romans into Achaia, to appeare the

troubles there, vi. 228.

Junius, consul, is defeated at sea by the Carthaginians, i. 270.

Justice, the supreme of virtues, iv. 260; and the principal support of regal authority, 25.

Juventius Thalna (P.), Roman practor, marches against Andriscus, vij. 926; he is killed in a battle, ibid.

K.

Krwopows. Origin and progress of kingdoms from their first institution, i. 19.

T.

LARDALON. Fort situated in the neighbourhood of Syrseuse, jii. 249. Laboroscarohod ascends the throne of Assyria, and is killed soon after, ii. 72; bad inclinations and eruelty of that prince, 119. Labynit—See Belshazzar.

Labyrinth of Egypt. Description of it, i. 131.

Lacedaemon, or Sparta, city of Peloponnesus, capital of Laconia.

Lacedaemonians or Spartans, ii. 252.

Kings of Lacedaemonia, 260; the Heraelidae seize Lacedaemon, where two brothers, Lurysthenes and Procles, reign jointly, 251; the erown remains in those two families, ibid.; the Lacedaemonians take Elos, and reduce the inhabitants of that city to the condition of slaves under the name of Helots, i. 109; Lyeurgus, legislator of Sparta, 101; war between the Lacedaemonians and Messenians, 102; first war between the Lacedaemonians and Messenians, 103; defeat of the Lacedaemonians near Ithoma, 104; they take and destroy Ithomá, and grant peace to the Messenians, 107; second war of the Lacedaemonians and Messenians, ibid.; the Lacedaemonians are defeated, 108; they demand a general of the Athenians, who give them Tyrraeus, by profession a poet, ibid.; by his verses he inspires them with courage, and occasions their gaining a great victory, 109; the Lacedaemonians subject the Messenians and reduce them to the condition of Helots, 110.

The Lacedaemonians deliver Athens from the tyranny of the Pisistratidae, ii. 303; they undertake to reinstate Hippias, son of Pisistratus, but ineffectually, 304, iii. 2; Darius sends to Sparta, to demand its submission, 7; the Spartans put his heralds to death, 8; a ridiculous superstition prevents the Lacedaemonians from having a share in the battle of Marathon, 9; the honour of commanding the Greeks is conceded to them, 43; three hundred Spartans dispute the pass of Thermopylae with Xerxes, 45; battle of Salamis, in which the Lacedaemonians have a great share, 54, &c.; honours which they render Themistocles after the battle, 60; the Lacedaemonians, in conjunction with the Athenians, out the army of the Persians in pieces at the battle of Plataca, 69; they defeat the Persian fleet at the same time near Mycale, 75; they are desirous of preventing the Athenians from rebuilding the walls of their city, 80; the haughtiness of Pausanias occasions their losing the command, 87; they send deputies to Athens, to acouse Themistocles as an accomplice in Pausanias's conspiracy, 90.

Earthquake at Sparta, iii. 128; sedition of the Helota, ibid.; seeds of division between Sparta and Athens, 129; peace is re-established butween the two states, 132; jealousy and differences

between the Lacedaemonians and Athenians, 141; treaty of peace for thirty years, 143; new causes of complaint and dissension, 144; open rupture between Sparta and Athens, 155; Peloponnesan war, 175, &c.; allies of the Lacedaemonians in that war, 177; they ravage Attica, 179; Lacedaemonians in that war, 177; they ravage Attica, 179; Lacedaemonians in that ried to Athens, and put to death, ibid.; Platica besieged and taken by the Lacedaemonians, 192, 204; they abandon Attica, to retake Pylos from the Athenians, 205; they are defeated at sea, ibid.; Lacedaemonians abut up in the island of Sphecteria, 206; they surrender at discretion, 209; expeditions of the Lacedaemonians into Threee, 216; they take Amphipolis, 217; truce for a year between Sparta and Athens, 219; victory of the Lacedaemonians over the Athenians near Amplipolis, 221; treaty of peace between the two states for fifty years, 223.

The war renewed between Sparta and Athens, iii. 229; the Lacodaemonians give Alcibiades refuge, 247; by his advice they send Gylippus to the aid of Syracuse, and fortify Decelia in Attens, 553, 263; the Lacodaemonians conclude a treaty with Persia, 253, 283; their fleet is beaten by the Athenians near Cyzicum, 299; they appoint Lynander admiral, 298; they beat the Athenian fleet near Ephesus, 301; Callieratidas succeeds Lynander, 302; defeat of the Lacodaemonians near the Arginusae, 304, 2cc.; they gain a famous victory over the Athenians near Ægospotamos, 315; they take Athens, 317; and change the form of its government, 318; decree of Sparta concerning the use of the money which Lynander causes to be carried thither, 519; infamous means which they use for ridding themselves of Alcibiades, 396; inhumanity of the Lacodaemonians to the Atheniaus, who fied to avoid the violence of the thirty tyranta, 330.

The Lacedaemonians furnish Cyrus the Younger with troops against his brother Artaxerses. iii. 339; they chastize the insolence of the inhabitants of Elis, iv. 19; they undertake with Agestiaus at their head, to restore the ancient liberty of the Greeks of Asia. 24; expedition of the Lacedaemonians in Asia, 29; Sparta appoints Agesilaus generalissimo by sea and land, 32; league against the Lacedaemonians 36; they gain a great victory near Nemaca, 39; their fleet is defeated by Conon near Cnidos, 40; hattle gained by the Lacedaemonians at Coronea, 42, &c.; they conclude a peace shameful for the Greeks with the Persians, 48; they declare war with the Olynthians, 458; they seize the citadel of Thebes by fraud and violence, 359; they receive the Olynthians into the number of their allies, 261.

Prosperity of Sparta, iv. 261; the Lacedaemonians are compelled to quit the citadel of Thebes, 269; they form an ineffectual enterprise against the Piracus. 271; they are defeated near Tegyra, 273; they declare war against the Thebans 276; they are defeated and put to flight at Leustra, 278. &c.; the Thebans rawage their country, and advance to the gates of Sparta, 231; the Lacedaemonians implore aid of the Athenians, 286; Sparta besieged by Epaminondas. 299; battle of Mantinaca, in which the Lacedaemonians are defeated, 302, &c.; the Lacedaemonians aend aid to Tachos, who had revolted against the Persans, 314; enterprise of the Lacedaemonians against Megalopolis,

351; they revolt against the Macedonians, v. 194; they are defeated by Antipater, ibid.; Alexander pardons them, 195.

Sparta besieged by Pyrrhus, vi. 92; courage of the Spartan women during that siege, 93; history of the Lacedsemonians in the reign of Agis, 144; and in that of Cleomenes, 159; Sparta falls into the hands of Autigorus Doson, 180; sedition in Sparta appeased by Philip, 206; Sparta joins the Ætolians against that prince, 210; several actions between the Lacedsemonians and Philip, 223; Sparta joins with the Ætolians against that Prince, 210; Machanidas becomes tyrant of Sparta, zhid.; the Lacedsemonians defeated by Philopomen near Manthases, 264; Nabis succeeds Machanidas, 267; his cruel treament of the Lacedsemonians, ibd.; Quintius Flamishuus besieges Sparta, 326; enterprise of the Ætolians against Sparta, 642; that city enters into the Achaean league, 343; the Spartans cruelly treated by their exiles, vii. 25; war between the Lacedsemonians and Achaeans, 227; the Romans separate Sparta from the Achaean league, 228.

Political government of Sparta ii. 266, iv. 112; abstract of the Spartan government, 113; love of poverty, 116; laws established by Minos in Crete, the model of those of Sparta, 119; acenate, ii. 268; gold and silver money banished Sparta, 269; public meals, 270; education of children, 281; barbarous cruelty in respect to them, 282; obedience to which they were secustomed, ibid.; patience and fortitude of the Spartan youth, ibid.; their respect towards the aged, ibid.; their most usual occupation, 274; their mothers' inhumanity, 285; their excessive leisure, ibid.; their eruelty towards the Helots, 286; modesty and decency entirely neglected,

ibid.

Lachares, Theban, commands a detachment of the army of Ochus in that prince's expedit on against Egypt, iv. 340; he forms the niege of Pelusium, and takes it, ibid.

Laconia, province of Peloponuesus, ii. 252.

Lada, a small island over against Miletus, ii. 359.

Lais, famous courtesan, iii. 947.

Laius, king of Thebes, his misfortunes, ii. 260.

Lake of Mœris, i. 132.

Lamachus is appointed general with Nicias and Alcibiades in the expedition of the Athenians against Sicily, iii. 235; his poverty makes him contemptible to the troops, 346; he is killed at the siege of Syracuse, 256.

Lamia, courtesan to Demetrius. Her enormous expenses, vi. 19;

pleasantry of a comic poet in respect to her, ibid.

Lamia, city of Thessaly, famous for the victory of the Athenians

over Antipater, v. 316.

Laodice, wife of Antiochus Theos, is repudiated by that prince, vi. 109; Autiochus takes her again, 116; she causes him to be poisoned, 117; and Seleucus Callinicus to be declared king in his stead, ibid.; she causes Berenise and her son to be put to death, ibid.; Ptolemy puts her to death, 118.

Laodice, daughter of Mithridates, king of Pontes, marries Antiochus

the Great, vi. 187.

Lactice, sister of Demetrius Soter, and widow of Perseus king of Macedonia, is put to death by Austronius, favourite of Alexander Bala, vii. 266.

Landice, widow of Ariarathes VI., acts as regent during the minority of six princes her children, viii. 12; she poisons five of them, and prepares to do the same by the sixth, but is put to death by the people, ibid.

Laodice, sister of Mithridates Eupator, marries first Ariarathes VII. king of Cappadocia, viii. 12; and afterwards Nicomedes king of Bithynia, ibid.; part which he makes her act at Rome before the

senate, 70.

Laomedon, one of Alexander's captains. Provinces which fell to him after that prince's death, v. 312; he is disposessed of them. by Nicanor, who takes him prisoner, 339.

Laranda, city of Pisidia, revolts against Perdiceas, v. 331; tragical

end of that city, ibid.

Larissa, city of Thesasly, ii. 253.

Lesthenes, chief magistrate of Olynthas, puts that city into the hands of Philip, v. 27.

Lasthenes, of Crete, supplies Demetrius Nicator with troops for ascending the throne of Syria, vii. 266; his bad conduct makes that prince commit many faults, 268.

Lathyrus. See Ptolemy Lathyrus.

Laws. Origin and institution of laws, i. 19; laws of the Egyptians, 147, &c.; laws of Crete, iv. 120, &c.; laws of Sparta, ii. 266, &c.; laws of Athens 287, &c.

Leaping. Exercise amongst the Greek, i. 57.

Legislators, famous ones of antiquity; Draco, ii. 288; Solon, ibid.; Lycurgus, 266; Charondas, iii. 171; Zaleucus, 172.

Lelex, first king of Lacedaemonia, ii. 260.

Lentiscus, son of Ptolemy, is taken prisoner by Demetrius, and sent back to his father by that prince, v. 599.

Lentulus is sent to Thebes by the Romans, to have an eye over Bœotia, during the war with Perseus, vii. 143.

Lentulus, consul, is ordered to reinstate Ptolemy Auletes upon the throne, viii. 137; is prevented from executing that commission by a pretended oracle of the Sybits, 139.

Leon, Corinthian, defends the citadel of Syracuse against Icetas

and the Carthaginians, iv. 248.

Leon, Athenian, is sent deputy with Timagorus to the court of

Persia, and accuses his colleague at his return, iv. 288.

Leonatus, one of Alexander's captains. Provinces that fell to him after that prince's death, v. 312; he marches to the aid of Antipater besieged in Lamin, 318; he is killed in battle, 519.

Leonidas, governor of Alexander, v. 77.

Leonidas I. king of Sparta, defends the pass of Thermopylae with unparalleled bravery against the innumerable army of Xerxes, iii. 44 ; he is killed there, 46 ; the Lacedaemonians erect to him

a magnificent monument, ibid.

Leonidas II. reigns at Sparta jointly with Agis, vi. 144; he opposes the designs of that prince, 149; he is divested of the sovereignty, 150; he escapes to Teges, 151; he is recalled, and replaced upon the throne, 153; he lays snares for Ages, 155; and puts him to death, 157; he obliges the wife of that prince to marry his son Cleamenes, 158; death of Leonidas, 159; his character, 144.

Leontides, polemarch of Thebes, puts the situdel of that place into the hands of the Lacedaemonians, iv. 259; he imprisons is menical

who was his opponent, ibid.; he sends persons to Athens to assarsinate the principal exiles, 263; Pelopidas, at the head of the conspirators, kills him, 268.

Leontium, city of Sicily, iii. 234.

Leont us, Philip's general, insults Aratus grossly at a feast, vi. 223; he is accurity for the fine laid on Megaleas upon the same account, ibid.; Philip takes the command of his troops from him,

and puts him to death, 226, &c.

Leosthenes, Athenian, informs Athens of Alexander's death, and animates them to throw off the Macedonian yoke, v. 315; he is placed at the head of the Greeks leagued against Antipater, 316; his glorious exploits, 318; he receives a wound at the siege of Lam's, ibid.; and dies soon after, 319.

Leotychides, king of Lucedaemonia, in conjunction with Xanthippus the Athenian, gams a famous victory over the Persians near

Mycale. ii. 75.

Leotychides, son of Times, wife of Agis, passes for the son of Alcibiades, and for that reason is excluded the throne, iii. 248.

Leptines, brother of Donysius, is put to flight by the Carthaginians, with the fleet under his command, iv. 189; he is banished, 202; and soon after recalled, ibid.; he is killed in a battle, ibid.

Leptines kills Callippus, Dion's murderer, iv. 237

Leptines, tyrant of Apollonia, surrenders himself to Timoleon, who sends him to Corinth, iv. 251.

Leptines, Syrian, kills Octavius the Roman ambassador, vii. 258; Demetrius delivers him up to the senate, 262.

Leptines, Syraeusan, Hiero's father-in-law, viii. 21.

Lesbos, island of Greece, il. 254; revolt of that island against the Athenians, iii. 195; the Athenians reduce it to its former obedience, 201.

Letters. Invention of letters brought into Greece by Cadmus, i. 180. Leucon, king in the Bosphorus. Mutual generosity between that prince and the Atheniaus, iv. 354.

Leuctra, small town of Bootia, famous for the victory of the Thebans over the Lacedaemonians, iv. 277, &c.

Levinus, Roman consul, defeated by Pyrrhus, vi. 74, &c.

Levinus (M. Valerius) is sent into Greece and Macedonia, in quality of practor, to oppose the enterprises of Philip, vi. 237; enemies whom he excites against that prince, ibid., &c.

Lewis XV. king of Prance. Glorious testimony which that prince

renders the French nation, vii. 30, &c.

Libya, part of Africa. War of Libya, or of the mercenaries, i. 274. Licinius, consul, is sent into Macedonia against Perseus, vii. 137; he encamps near the river Peneus, 147; he is defeated in a battle, 150, &c.; and afterwards gains some advantage over Perseus, 155.

Licinius (C.), the consul's brother, commands the Italian cavalry in his brother's army, vii. 149,

Light-house of Alexandria, i. 144.

Ligoras, one of the generals of Antiochus the Great, makes that prince master of the city of Sardis, vi. 201.

Liguria, province of Italy, vii. 219; its inhabitants subjected to those of Marseilles, by the Romans, 220.

Lilybacum, city of Sicily, besieged by the Romans, i. 268.

Lissus, city of Illyria. Siege and taking of that city by Philip, vi. 237.

Livius, consul, is sent into Cisalpine Gaul, to oppose the entrance of Asdrubal into Italy, i. 322; he defeats that general in a great battle, 324.

Loans. Law concerning them among the Egyptians, i. 149; in what manner such as lived by borrowing were considered amongst. the Persians, in 202.

Lotus, an Egyptian plant of which they made bread, i. 168.

Love. Care of the ancients to avoid admitting any thing into their dramatic poems relating to love, i. 79; conjugal love, model of ita vi. 154.

Lucretius, praetor, commands the Roman fleet sent against Perseus. vii. 144; he besieges Haliartus, a city of Bootia, takes and de-

molishes it entirely, 155.
Lucullus commands the Roman fleet sent against Mithridates, and gains two great victories over that prince, viii. 85; he is elected consul, and charged with the war against Mithridates, 94; he obliges that prince to raise the siege of Cyzicum, 96; and defeats his troops, ibid.; he gains a complete victory over him, 98; and obliges him to take refuge with Tigranes, king of Armenia, 100; he sends an ambassador to demand Mithridates, ibid.; he regulates the affairs of Asia, 102; he declares war against Tigranes, 103; and marches against him, 104; he besieges Tigranocerta, 106; he gains a great victory over Tigranes, 108; and takes Tigranocerta, 110; he gains a second victory over the joint forces of Mithridates and Tigranes, 113; his army refuses to obey him. 114, 116; Pompey is sent to command in his stead, 119; Lucullus returns to Rome, and receives the honour of a triumph, 121; his character, 116; means which he used for acquiring the knowledge of the art of war, 85.

Lusitania, part of ancient Spain, i. 228.

Lutatius, consul, defeats the fleet of the Carthaginians, and puts an end by that victory to the first Punic war, i. 272.

Lycidas, Athenian, votes for having the proposal of Mardonius

heard, iii. 64; he is stoned, ibid.

Lyciscus, deputy from the Acarnanians, endeavours to engage the Lacedaemonians in Philip's party, vi. 239.

Lyciscus, Ætolian, is accused of having treated those with great cruelty who would not espouse the cause of the Romans against Perseus, vii. 207; P. Æmilius acquits him, ibid.

Lycon, Athenian, commander of the Grecian troops in the army of Pisuthnes, is brought into the views of Tissaphernes, whom he

joins, iii. 213.

Lycortas, Polybius's father, is sent ambassador by the Achaeans to Ptolemy Epiphanes, vii. 37; he is elected general of the Achaeans, and avenges Philopomen's death, 52; he is deputed a se-

cond time to Ptolemy, 60.

Lycurgus, son of Eunomus, king of Sparta, governs the kingdom as guardian to Charilaus, his nephew ii. 266; he endeavours to reform the government of Sparta, and makes several voyages with that view. 267; on his return he changes the form of the government, 268; he goes to Delphi to consult the oracle, and dies

voluntarily by abstaining from food, 276; reflections upon Ly-

ourgus's death, 277.

Lycurgus, Spartan, br bes the Ephori, and causes himself to be elected king of Sparta, vi. 210; Chilo's attempt against him, 211; Lycurgus flesinto Ætolia to escape the Ephori, and is soon after recalled, 228.

Lydia, country of Asia Minor, i. 24; kings of Lydia, ii. 84, &c.;

it s subjected by Cyrus, 136. Lyneeus, king of Argos, ii. 258.

Lyncestes (Alexander) is convicted of a conspiracy against Alex-

ander the Great, and put to death, v. 206.

*Lysandra, Ptolemy's daughter, marries Agathoeles, son of Lysimachus, vi. 55; after the murder of her husband she retires to Seleucus, and engages him to make war aguinst Lysimachus, 56.

Lysander is appointed admiral by the Lacedaemonians, iii. 298; he possesses great influence with Cyrus the Younger, 300; he beats the Athenian fleet near Ephesus, 301; his envy of Callicratidas. who is sent to succeed him, 803; he commands the fleet of the Lacedaemonians a second time, 311; and gains a famous victory over the Athenians at Ægospotamos, 315, &c.; he takes Athens, 317; and entirely changes the form of the government, 318; he returns to Sparts, and sends thither before him all the gold and silver taken from the enemy, ibid.; he is sent to Athens to re-establish the thirty tyrants, 331; he strangely abuses his power, 333; he suffers the Grecian cities in Asia Minor to consecrate altars to him, ibid.; upon the complaint of Pharnabasus he is recalled to Sparta, 335; Lysander accompanies Agesilaus into Asia, iv. 24; he quarrels with him, 26; and returns to Sparta, ibid.; his ambitious designs for changing the succession to the throne, 27; he is killed before Haliartus, which he was going to besiege, 37; some time after his death, the plot he had formed against the two kings is discovered, 44; Lyssader's character, 299 &c.

Lysander is elected one of the Ephori at Sparta through the influence of Agis, vi. 148; he endeavours to make the people receive

the ordinances of that excellent young king, ibid.

Lysiades, tyrant of Megalopolis, renounces his power upon the remonstrances of Aratus, and makes his city enter into the Achaean league, vi. 143; the Achaeans make him their captaingeneral three times successively, and then expel him, ibid, ; he

is killed in battle, 161.

Lysias, kinsman of Antiochus Epiphanes, is made governor by that prince of part of his dominions, and preceptor to Antiochus Eupator, vii. 112; Antiochus gives him the command of the army against the Jews, ibid.: he is defeated by Judas Maccabaeus, 116; he possesses himself of the regency during the minority of Antiochus Eupator, 250: the government of Cœlosyria and Palestine is given to him, 251; he is defeated by Judas Maccabaeus, 252; he makes peace with the Jews, 254; he is delivered up to Demetrius Soter, who puts him to death, 259.

Lysias, one of the Athenian generals, who defeated the Lacedaemonians near the islands Arginusae, and at their return were con-

demned to die, iii, 305.

Lysias of Syracuse, a celebrated orator, goes to settle at Thurium,

iii. 170; he raises five hundred men to aid the Athenians against the thirty tyrants, 330; offers an oration to Socrates for his defence, iv. 87; character of Lysias's style, ibid.

Lysicles commands the Athenian army at Chaeronea, and is defeated by Philip, v. 57.

Lysimachia, a city of Thrace, vi. 518.

Lysimachus, one of Alexander's captains. Provinces which fell to him after Alexander's death, v. 312; he enters into a league with Ptolemy, Seleucus, and Cassander, against Antigonus, 371; treaty of peace between those princes, which is immediately broken, 380; Lysimachus, Ptolemy, Cassander, and Seleucus, enter into a confederacy against Antigonus and Demetrius, vi. 20; they divide Alexander's empire amongst them, 22; all ance of Lysimachus with Ptolemy, 25; he takes Macedonia from Demetrius, 35; and divides it with Pyrrhus, ibid.; he obleges Pyrrhus soon after to quit it, 36; he marches against Seleucus, gives him battle, and is killed, 58.

Lysimachus, Alexander's preceptor, accompanies that prince in his

expeditions, v. 132.

Lasistrata, comedy of Aristophanes; extract from it, i. 82.

M.

MACCABEES. Martyrdom of them, vii. 167, &c.

Macedonia. Macedonians. Macedonia, kingdom of Greece, ii. 2525 origin of the Macedonians, 258; commencement of their empire, 262; kings of Macedonia before Philip. v. 1, &c.; reign of Philip, 5; and his son Alexander, 82; Alexander's successors who reigned in Macedonia, Cassander, vi. 22; Philip his son, 27; Demetrius Poliorectes, 31; Pyrrhus, 33; Lysimaehus, 36; Seleuous, 58; Ptolemy Ceraunus, 59; Southenes, 62; Antigonus Gonatas, 66; Demetrius, son of Antigonus, 122; Antigonus Doson, 127; Philip son of Demetrius, 181; Perseus, vii. 85; Macedonia is declared free by the Romans, 195; and some time after reduced into a province of the Roman empire, 227.

Machanidas becomes tyrant of Sparta, vi. 240; he endeavours to subject Peloponnesus, 261; Philopæmen marches against him,

ibid.; Machanidas is defeated and killed in battle, 264.

Madathes, governor of the country of the Uxii for Darius, refuses to surrender to Alexander, v. 181; that prince subdues and for-

gives him, ibid.

Magas, governor of Cyrenaica and Lybia revolts against Ptolemy Philadelphus, and causes himself to be declared king of those provinces, vi. 103; he causes overtures of accommodation to be made to that prince, and dies during the negotiation, 107.

Magas, brother of Ptolemy Philopator, is put to death by his order,

vi 195.

Magi, employed in divine worship among the Persians, ii. 232; their religion, 233.

Magistrate. Duty of a magistrate, viii. 65.

Magnesia, city of Caria, in Asia Minor, i. 23; Artaxerxes gives the revenues of that city to Themistocles for his subsistence, iii. 106. Mago, the Carthaginian general, is sent into Sicily to make war against Dionysius the Elder, iv. 188; after various efforts be concludes a peace with that tyrant, 194; he loses a great battle, and and is killed in it, i. 241.

Mago, son of the former, commands the army of the Carthaginians in Sicily, and gains a great victory over Dionysius the Elder. i. 241; he shamefully abandons the conquest of Sicily 243; he

returns to Carthage, and kills himself through despair, ibid.

Mago, Carthaginian general, is placed at the head of the fleet aent to aid the Romans against Pyrrhus, i. 254; he goes to Pyrrhus in order to sound his designs in respect to Sieily, ibid.

Mago, Hannibal's brother, carries the news of that general's victory over the Romans, at the battle of Cannae, to Carthage, i. 315.

Mago, Carthaginian general, is taken prisoner in Sardinia, i. 319. Maharbal, Carthaginian officer, endeavours to persuade Hannibal to march directly to Rome after the battle of Cannae, i. 314.

Vulgar report concerning his tomb, vi. 113. Mahomet.

Malli, a people of India. Their war with Alexander, v. 256; they

submit to that prince, 258.

Mamertines, people originally of Italy. They seize Messina, a city of Sicily, i. 256; they are defeated by Pyrrhus, vi. 86; a division arises amongst them which occasions the first Punic war, i. 256.

Manasseh, king of Judah, is put in chains by the generals of Esarhaddon, and carried captive to Babylon, ii. 65; he obtains his li-

berty, and returns to Jerusalem, ibid.

Mancinus (L.), the consul Piso's lieutenant, engages rashly in a post,

from whence Scipio happily extricates him, ii. 16.

Mandana, daughter of Astyages king of the Medes, is given in marriage to Cambyses king of Persia, ii, 84; she goes to Media, and earries her son Cyrus with her. 98; she returns into Persia. 100.

Mandanis, an Indian philosopher, refuses to follow Alexander in his

train, v. 251.

Mandroclides, a young Spartan, supports the party of Lysander the Ephorus, through zeal for the public good, vi. 148.

Manethon, Egyptian priest, author of the history of the Dynastics of

Egypt, i. 171.

Mania, wife of Zenia, is continued in the government of Æolia after the death of her husband, and causes herself to be admired for her conduct, iv. 17; she is assassinated with her son, by Midias her son-in-law, ibid.

Manilius (M.), consul, is sent against Carthage in the beginning of

the third Punic war, ii. 9.

Manilius, tribune of the people, prepares a decree for appointing Pompey to command the armies against the kings Mithridates and Tigranes, viii. 117.

Manius (Curius), consul, gains a great victory over Pyrrhus, and obliges him to quit Italy, vi. 69.

Manius (Aquilius), consul, terminates the war against Aristonicus,

vii. 283; and enters Rome in triumph, 284.

Manlius (L.) is appointed consul with Regulus, i. 260; they jointly gain a great victory over the Carthaginians, near Ecnomus in Si-cily, ibid.; they go to Africa, ibid.; Manlius is resalled, ibid. Mantinea, city of Arcadia, famous for the victory of Epaminondes ever the Lacedsemonians, iv. 304; and for that of Philopemen over Machinidas, tyrant of Sparta, vi. 263.

Marscanda, capital city of Sogdiana, submits to Alexander, v. 211. Marsthon, small city of Attica, famous for the victory of the Athe-

mians over the Persians, iii. 9.

Marcellus (M.), consul, is sent into Sicily to appease the troubles there, viii. 39; he forms the siege of Syracuse, 47; the considerable losses of men and ships, by the dreadful machines of Archimedes, oblige him to turn the siege into a blockade, 49; he undertakes several expeditions in Sicily, 51; he makes himself master of Syracuse by means of his intelligence in the city, 52, &c.; he abandons the city to be plundered, 58; honours which he pays to the memory of Archimedes, ibid.; Marcellus at first as practor, and afterwards as consul, gains several advantages over Hannibal, i. 319.

Marcius (L.), Roman knight, preserves Spain to the Romans by his

valour, i. 322.

Marcius, ambassador of the Romans in Greece, has an interview with Perseus near the river Peneus, vii. 140; he returns to Rome, F142; he is sent again into Greece, to regulate affairs there, 143.

Marcius (Philippus Q.), consul, is charged with the war against Perseus, vii. 157; he sets out from Rome, and advances towards Macedonia 158; after great fatigues he penetrates into Macedo-

nia, and takes several cities there, 159, &c.

Mardonius, son-in-law of Darius, enters Macedonia with an army, iii. 1; his ill success obliges Darius to recal him, 2; he gives Xer-xes flattering counsels which induce him to invade Greece, 23; Xerxes chooses him one of his generals, 37; that prince leaves him with a numerous army to reduce Greece, 58; he causes very advantageous offers to be made to the Athenians which are rejected, 62; he enters Athens, and burns what had escaped when pillaged the year before, 64; he is defeated, and killed at the battle of Plataea, 69.

Mare of Phidolas, i. 166.

Maronaea, city of Thrace. Cruel treatment of its inhabitants by Philip, vii. 46.

Marriages. Laws concerning them instituted at Athens and Sparta, ii. 294.

Marianne, grand-daughter of Aristobulus, marries Herod the Idu-

maean, vii. 335.

Marius, lieutenant under Metellus, supplants that general, and causes himself to be appointed general for terminating the war with Jugurtha in his stead, ii. 38; he gets Jugurtha into his hands, and makes him serve as an ornament of his triumph, 39.

Marius (M.), Roman senator, is sent by Sertonous to the aid of Mithridates, viii. 93; he is taken by Lucullus and put to death. 96.

Marseilles, inhabitants of. Their embassy to Rome, vil. 219; origin of the people of Marseilles, 220; they settle in Gaul, ibid.; wisdom of their government, 221; their attachment to the Romans, 223; they obtain from the Romans the pardon of Phocaea, which had been condemned to be destroyed, 283.

Masinissa, king of Numidia, espouses the party of the Romans against the Carthaginians, i. 325, 347; he marries Sophonisba, and is soon obliged to send her poison, ii. 2; contests between

Maniniam and the Carthaginians, 5; he defeats them in a battle, ibid.; he dies, and at his death appoints Scipio Æmilianus guardian of his children, 15.

Masistus, son of Darius and Atossa, is one of the six commanders of the army of Xerxes, iii. 37; tragical death of Masistus and his

children, 79.

Massaga, city of India, besieged and taken by Alexander, v. 237.

Massiva, Numidian prince, is murdered in the midst of Rome by Jugurtha's orders, ii. 37.

Mastanabal, Masinissa's son, shares the kingdom of Numidia with

his two brothers, ofter the death of their father, ii. 32.

Mattamah is placed upon the throne of Judah in the room of his nephew Jechonias, ii. 69.

Mattathias, Jew, of the sacerdotal race, refuses to obey the ordinances of Antiochus, vii. 105; he retires with his family into the mountains, to avoid the perseent on, 106; death of Mattathias, 110.

Matho, in concert with Spendius, causes the mercenaries to revolt against the Carthaginians, i, 276; he is placed at their head, ibid.; he takes Hamibal prisoner, and causes him to be hanged up in the room of Spendius, 280; he is taken by the Carthaginians, who execute him, 281.

Mausolus, king of Caria, enters into a conspiracy against Artaxerxes, iv. 317; he subjects the Rhodians and the people of Cos. 333; his death, ibid.; honours paid to his memory by Arteminia his wife,

ibid. Mazarus, a Macedonian lord, is appointed governor of the citadelof

Susa by Alexander, v. 178.

Mazzeus, governor of Memphis for Darius, abandons that city to Alexander, v. 156; he commands the horse in the army of Darius at the battle of Arbela, 171; he surrenders himself, and the city of Babylon, to Alexander, 175; that prince gives him the government of Babylonia, 176.

Meals. Public ones instituted at Crete and Sparts, ii. 270.

Mecaenas, favourite of Augustus, and patron of the learned, iii. 163.

Medea, her means to escape the pursuit of her father, viii. 99.

Medes, ancient people of Asia, inhabiting Media, ii. 74; h-story of the kingdom of the Medes and Persians united, ii. 162; revolt of the Medes against Darius Nothus, iii. 215; that prince obliges them to return to their duty, ibid.; manners of the Medes, ii. 193; manner in which they contracted alliances, 82.

Media, kingdom of Upper or greater Asia, i. 23; description of

that kingdom by Polybius, vi. 269.

Medon, son of Codrus, is placed at the head of the commonwealth

of Athens, under the title of Archon, ii. 260.

Megabates, a Persian noblemsn, occasions the failure of the enterprise of the Persians against Naxos through jealousy of Aristagoras, ii. 353.

Megabysus, governor of Thrace for Darius, occasions the permission that prince had given Hystiacus to build a city in Thrace to be revoked, ii. 350; he sends deputes to demand earth and water of Amyntas, 351; insolence of those deputies at the court of Amyntas, and revenge taken on them by the sons of that prince, ibid.

Legabysus, son of Zopyrus, is one of the six generals of the army

of Xerxes, iii. 37; he discovers the plot formed by Artabanes against Artaxerxes, 98; he is charged by that prince with the war against the revolted Egyptians, 116; he subjects the Egyptians, and promises to spare their lives, ibid.; Megabysus, in despair, on seeing the Egyptians put to death, contrary to the faith of the treaty, revolts against Artaxerxes, 118; he defeats two armies sent against him by that prince, ibid.; he is restored to favour, and returns to court, bid.; Artaxerxes' jealousy of Megabysus at a hunting match, ibid.; death of Megabysus, ibid.

Megacles, son of Alemacon, puts himself at the head of one of the factions that divided Athens in Solon's time, iii. 297; his marriage with Agar sta, daughter of Clisthenes, ibid.; he drives Pisistratus out of Athens, and soon after recals him, 299; he is obliged to

quit Athens, ibid.

Megaeles, friend of Pyrrhus, vi. 74; that prince in a battle gives his mantle and arms to Megaeles, and disguises himself in his, 75; Megaeles in grounded and unbowned in the battle, itid.

Megacles is wounded and unhorsed in the battle, ibid.

Megadates is appointed vicercy of Svria by Tigranes, and governs that kingdom fourteen years, vii. 308; Tigranes recals him from

thence, viii. 113.

Megaleas Philip's general, devotes h mself entirely to Apelles, that prince's minister, vi. 217; he insults Aratus, in concert with Leonius, at the breaking up of a feast, 223; Philip imprisous him, and then sets him at liberty upon giving security, ibid.; his had designs against Philip are discovered, 227; he kills himself to avoid a tral, and execution of sentence upon him, ibid.

Megalopolis, city of Areadia iv. 381; Aratus makes it enter into

the Achaesn league, vi. 145.

Megara, city of Achaia, its foundation, ii. 264; that city enters into the Achaean league, vi. 139.

Megistones, Lacedaemonian captain, is sent by Cleomenes to the aid of Argos, and is killed fighting in that city, vi. 169.

Melitus, Athenian ora or, accuses Socrates, iv. 86; success of that accusation, 93; he is condemned to die, 194.

Melon, Theban, is appointed Bosotarch with Pelopidas and Charon, iv. 268.

Memnon, Rhodian, recovers the favour of Ochus, against whom he had taken arms, iv. 842; he endeavours to prevent Darius's generals from fighting the battle of the Granicus, v. 93; he throws himself into Miletus, and defends that place against Alexander, 98: he defends the c ty of Halicarnassus, against that prince, 99; he transports the inhabitants of that city to the island of Cos, ibid.; he advises Darius to carry the war into Macedonia, 103; that prince gives the execution of that enterprise to him, and makes him generalissimo, ibid.; Memnon besieges Mitylene, and d es before that place, 103.

Memnon. Memnon's statue in Thebais. Wonders related of it, i 127.

Memphis, city of Egypt. Its foundation, i. 174; taking of that city by Cambyses, ii. 180; and afterwards by Alexander, v. 156.

Memphitis, son of Physicon and Cleopatra, is murdered by his father, cut in pieces, and sent to his mother, vii. 290.

Menander, Athenian, is made colleague to Nicias, who had the command in Sicily, iii. 263; he forses that general to engage in a seafight, in which he is worsted, 267; is partly the cause of the defeat of the Athenians, near Ægospotamos, 314.

Menander, comic poet, change which he introduced in comedy, i. 85. Menander, one of Alexander's captains. Provinces that fell to him

after that prince's death, v. 312.

Mendes, city of Egypt, iv. 316; a prince of that city disputes the crown with Nectanebus, ibid.; he is defeated and taken prisoner by Agesilaus, ibid.

Meneorates, ridiculous vanity of that physician, v. 69.

Menelaus, Ptolemy's brother, is defeated by Demetrius, and obliged to retire into Salamis, v. 391; he surrenders himself at discretion to Demetrius, who sends him to his brother without ransom, 598. Menelaus supplants Jason his brother, high-priest of the Jews, and

obtains his office, via 92, Jason drives him out of Jerusalem, 95;

Antiochus reinstates him in the high-priesthood, 96.

Menes, or Misraim, first king of Egypt, i. 172.

Menon commands the Thessalian troops of Cyrus's army, m that prince's expedition against his brother Artaxerxes, iii. 339; Tissuphernes seizes him, with the other Greek generals, by treachery, and puts him to death, 356; Menon's character, 357.

Menostanes, nephew to Artaxerxes Longimanus, is defeated and

put to flight by Megabysus, iii. 118.

Mentor, Rhodian, is sent by Nectanebus into Phonicia to support the rebels there, iv. 336; he is confounded on the approach of Ochus, 338; he puts the city of Sidon into that prince's hands, ibid.; Ochus gives him the command of a detachment of his army against Egypt, 340; Mentor's actions in Egypt, ibid.; Ochus makes him governor of all the coast of Asia, and declares him generalissimo of all the troops on that side, 342; Mentor's conduct in his government, ibid.

Menyllus commands the Macedonian garrison, which Antipater puts into Munychia, v. 322; Cassander takes the command of that for-

tress from him, 343.

Mercenaries. War of the mercenaries against the Carthaginians, i. 274.

Mercury, Egyptian, to whom Egypt was indebted for the invention of almost all the arts, i. 176.

Mericus, Spaniard, delivers up one of the gates of Syracuse to Marcellus in the night, viii. 57,

Mermuadae, race of the kings of Lydia, ii. 85.

Merodach-Baladan, king of Babylon, sends ambassadors to Hezekiah, to congratulate him upon the recovery of his health, ii. 60. Meroe, daughter of Cyrus, becomes wife of her brother Cambyses,

ii. 184; tragical death of that princess, ibid.

Mesabates, eunuch, cuts off the head and hand of Cyrus the Younger by order of Artaxerxes, iii. 346; punishment inflicted on him by Parysat s, iv. 14.

Messengers, or Letter-carriers, established by the University of

Paris, ii. 208.

Messenia, a country of Peloponnesus, i. 102.

First war between the Messenians and Lacedaemonians, i. 103; the Messenians defeat the army of the Lacedaemonians near Ithoma, 104, &c.; they submit to the Lacedaemonians, 107; second war between the Messenians and Lacedaemonians, 107; the Messenians are at first victorious, 108; then defeated, 109; they are reduced to the condition of the Helots, 110; they are reinstated by the Thebans, iv. 283; troubles between the Messenians and Achaeaus, vii. 51; the Messenians put Philopæmen to death, 52; they are subjected by the Achaeaus, ibid.; fault of the Messenians, which occasioned all their misfortunes, iv. 284.

Messina, or Messana, city of Sicily, iii. 234.

Metellus (L.), consul, is charged with the war against Jugurtha it. 37; he is supplanted by Marius, 38; he enters Rome in triumph, ibid.

Metellus (Q. Caecilius), Roman praetor, defeats Andrisous, vi. 226; and sends him prisoner to Rome, 227; he reduces another adventurer named Alexander, ibid.

Methone, city of Thrace, destroyed by Philip, v. 18.

Meton, astronomer, counterfeits the madman, and wherefore, iii. 283.

Metrodorus, of Seepsis, goes ambassador for Mithridates to Tigranes, viii. 105; Mithridates puts him to death, ibid.

Metrodorus, painter and philosopher, is given to Paulus Æmilius by

the Athenians for a tutor to his sons, vii. 193.

Micipaa succeeds his father Masinissa in the kingdom of Numidia, ii. 32; he adopts Jugurtha his nephew, and makes him co-heir with the rest of his children, 34; Micipaa's death, ibid.

Micythus, guardian of the children of Anaxilaus. Prudence of his

adiginistration, iii. 164.

Midias, son-in-law of Mania, assassinates his mother-in-law and her son, in order to possess himself of her riches and government, iv. 17; he is deprived of them by Dercyllidas, ibid.

Miletus, city of Ionia, ii. 359; cruelties soled by Lysander at Miletus, iii. 334; Miletus besieged and taken by Alexander, v. 98.

Milo of Crotona, famous atheleta, defeats the army of the Sybarites, and destroys their city, iii. 170; extraordinary strength of

that combatant, 174; his voracity, 175; his death, ibid.

Miltiades, Athenian, tyrant of the Thracian Chersonesus, accompanies Darius in his expedition against the Seythians, and is of opinion that satisfaction ought to be made to them, ii. 348; an irruption of the Seythians into Thrace obliges him to abandon the Chersonesus, whither he returns soon after, 351; he settles at Athens, iii. 3; he commands the army of the Athenians, and gains a famous victory at Marathon over the Persans, 11, &c.; moderate reward given him by the Athenians, 15; he sets out with a fleet to reduce the revolted islands, and has ill success in the isle of Paros, ibid.; he is eited to take his trial, and has a great fine laid upon him, 16; not being able to pay it, he is put in prison, and dies there, ibid.

Miltocythes, Thracian, abandons the Greeks after the battle of

Cunaxa, and surrenders himself to Artaxetxes, iii. 552.

Mina, Greek money. Its value, iv. 142.

Mindarus, Spartan admiral, is defeated and killed in battle by Alcibiades, iii. 292.

Minerva, goddess, i. 27; famous feast at Athens in honour of her, ib d.

Mines. The product of mines was the principal riches of the ancienta, i. 214.

Minos, first king of Crete, iv. 120; laws instituted by him in his kingdom, ibid., &c.; hatred of the Athenians for Minos, 125; cause of that hatred, 126.

Minusius (Mareus) isappointed master of the horse to Fabius, i. 307; he gains a slight advantage over the Carthaginians, in that dictator's absence, 309; the people give him equal authority with the dictator, 510; he engages with disadvantage, out of which Fabius extricates him, ibid.; he acknowledges his fault, and returns to his obedience, ibid.; he is killed at the battle of Cannae, 314.

Missel, one of the three young Hebrews, preserved miraculously in the furnace, ii. 69.

Misraim.—See Menes.

Mithras, name given the sun by the Persians, iii. 325.

Mithridates I. king of Pontus, i. 117; that prince submits to Alexander, and accompanies him in his expeditions, v. 100.

Mithridates II. king of Pontus, flies to avoid the rage of Antigonus, i. 117.

Mithridates III. king of Pontus, adds Cappadocia and Paphlegonia to his dominions, i. 117.

Mithridates IV. king of Pontus, i. 118.

Mithridates V. surnamed Evergetes, king of Pontus, aids the Romans against the Carthaginians, i. 118; the Romans reward him with Phrygia Major, vii. 283; death of Mithridates, 293.

Mithridates VI. surnamed Eupator, ascends the throne of Pontus,

Aithridates VI. surnamed Eupator, ascends the throne of Pontus, i. 118, vii. 293, viii. 70; the Romans take Phrygia from him, ibid.; he possesses himself of Cappadocia and Bithynia, after having expelled their kings, 71, &c.; he gives his daughter in marriage to Tigranes, king of Armenia, ibid.; open rupture between Mithridates and the Romans, 73; that prince gains some advantages over the Romans, 74; he causes all the Romans and Italians in Asia Minor to be massacred in one day, 75; he makes himself master of Athens, ibid.; two of his generals are defeated by Sylla, 81, &c.; and himself by Fimbria, 85; his fleet is also twice beaten, ibid.; he has an interview with Sylla, and consoludes a peace with the Romans, 88; second war of the Romans with Mithridates, under Murena, 91; it subsists only three years, ibid.

Mithridates makes a treaty with Sertorius, 93; he prepares to renew the war with the Romans, ibid.; he seizes Paphlagonia and Bithynia, 94; the Romans send Lucultus and Cotta against him, ibid.; Mithridates defeats Cotta by sea and land, ibid.; he forms the siege of Cyzieum, 95; Lucultus obliges him to raise it, and defeats his troops. 96; Mithridates takes the field to oppose the progress of Lucultus, 97; he is entirely defeated and obliged to fly, ibid.; he sends orders to his sisters and wives to die, 99; he retires to Tigranes his son-in-law, 100; Tigranes sends him back into Pontus to raise troops, 105; Mithridates enderwours to console Tigranes after his defeat, 109; those two princes apply in concert to raising new forces 111; they are defeated by Lucullus 114.

Mithridates, taking advantage of the misunderstanding in the Roman army, recovers all his dominions, 117; he is defeated on several occasions by Pompey, 182; he endeavours in vain to find

an asylum with Tigranes, his son-in-law, 123; he retires into the Bosphorus, 17; he puts his son Kiphares to death, 128; he makes proposals of peace to Founcey, which are rejected, 129; he forms the design of attacking the Romans in Italy, 131; Pharmaces makes the army revolt against Mithridates, who kills himself, ibid.; character of Mithridates, 132.

Mithridates I. king of the Parthians, defeats Demetrius, and takes him prisoner, vii. 274; he carries that prince into his kingdom, and gives him his daughter Rhodoguna in marriage, thid.

Mithridates II. surnamed the Great, ascends the throne of Parthia, after the death of his uncle Artabanes, vii. 289; he re-establishes Antiochus Eusebes, who had taken refuge with him, in his dominions, 306; he sends an ambassador to Sylls, to make an alliance with the Romans, vii. 70; death of Mithridates, vii. 340.

Mithridates III. ascends the throne of Parthia after the death of Phraates, vii. 341; Orodes his brother dethrones and puts him

to death, ibid.

Mithridates, a young Persian lord, boasts of having given Cyrus the Younger his mortal wound, iii. 345; Parysatis causes him to be

put to death, iv. 13.

Mithridates, eunuch, and great chambertain of Xerxes, makes himself an accomplice in the murder of that prince, iii. 98; he is put to death by the punishment of the troughs, 102.

Mithridates of Pergamus marches with troops to the aid of Caesar

in Egypt, viii, 149.

Mithrobarzanes, favourite of Tigranes, is sent against Lucultus by that prince, viii. 105; himself and his troops are cut to pieces, ibid.

Mitylene, capital of the isle of Lesbos, ii. 254; that city taken by

the Athenians, iii. 199.

Mnasippus is sent with a fleet by the Lacedaemonians to retake Coroyra from the Athenians, iv. 279; he is killed in a battle, ibid. Mnaskires, king of the Parthians, vii. 340.

Mnevis, name of the ox adored in Egypt, i. 143.

Modesty. Traces of it amongst the ancients, ii. 85; it was absolutely

neglected at Sparta, 286.

Moeris, king of Egypt, i. 142; famous lake made by him, 132.

Molo is made governor of Media by Antiochus the Great, vi. 186; he makes himself sovereign in his province, ibid.; Antiochus defeats him in a battle, 191; he kills himself in despair, ibid.

Moloch, name given to Saturn in Scripture, L 204.

Monarchy. Original design of monarchy, ii. 76; monarchical the

best form of government, 191.

Monima of Ionia. Mithridates carries her with him in his train, via. 74; she marries that prince, 99; tragical death of that princess, 100.

Motya, city of Sicily, i. 230.

Mummius, consul, is charged with the war in Achaia, iii. 230; he defeats the Achaeans, 232; takes Coriath, and entirely demolishes it, ibid.: he preserves the statues erected in honour of Philopæmen, 235; noble disinterestedness of Mummius, 236; he enters Rante in triumph, 237; he goes on an embassy into Egypt, Asia, Syria, and Greece, 279.

Murena commands the left wing of Sylla's army at the battle of

Chaeronea, viii. \$1; Sylla, on setting out for Rome, leaves him the government of Asia, 90; he makes war against Mithridates. 21: and is defeated, ibid.; he receives the honour of a triumph at Rome, ibid.

Musacum. Academy of the learned, instituted under that name at Alexandria, vi. 41; description of the building called Musacum, 43. Music. To what perfection it was carried by the ancients, ii. 224; the Greeks considered it as an essential part of the education of

youth, iv. 144; prizes of music at the feast of Panathenea, i. 27.

Musicanus, Indian prince, subjected by Alexander, v. 260.

Mycale, promontory of the continent of Asia, famous for the victory of the Greeks over the Persians, iii. 75.

Mycenae, city of Peloponnesus, ii. 258; kings of Mycenae, 259. Mycerinus, king of Egypt, i. 183; mildness of his reign, 183. Myron, Athenian sculptor, i. 56.

Myronides, general of the Athenians, defeats the Spartans near Tanagra in Bœotia, iii. 130.

Myrto, supposed second wife of Socrates, from whom he had much to suffer, iv. 70.

Myscellus, general of the Achaeans, founder of Crotona, iii. 169. Mysteries. Feasts of the less and greater mysteries celebrated at Athens, in honour of Ceres Eleusina, i. 31.

NABAREANES, general of the horse in the army of Darius, in conjunction with Bessus, betrays that prince, v. 187; he retires into Hyreania, 189; he surrenders himself to Alexander upon his promise, 197.

Nabis makes himself tyrant of Sparta, vi. 267; instances of his avar ce and cruelty, ibid.; Philip puts Argos into his hands by way of deposit, 302; Nabis declares for the Romans sgainst that prince. ibid.; the Romans declare war against him, 322; Q. Flamin:nus marches against him, 323; besieges him in Sparta, 326; obliges him to sue for peace, 327; and grants it him, ibid.; Nabis breaks

the treaty, 333; he is defeated by Philopomen, 338; and obliged to shut himself up in Sparta, ibid.; he is killed, 342.

Nabonassar, or Belesis, king of Babylon, ii. 60.

Nabopolassar, king of Babylon, joins with Cyaxares king of Media, besieges Nineveh, and entirely ruins that city, ii. 66; he associates his son Nabuchodonosor with him in the empire, and sends him at the head of an army against Nechao, ibid.; Nabopolassar's

death, 67.

Nabuchofonosor I. or Sacaduchinus, king of Nineveh, ii. 65; that prince is attacked by Phraortes king of the Medes. 80; he defeats him in the plain of Ragau, ravages his dominions, and puts him to death, ib d.; he sends Holophernes with a powerful army to revenge him upon the people who had refused him aid, ibid.; entire defeat of his army, ibid.

Nabuchodonosor II. is associated in the empire of Assyria, by Nabopolassar, ii. 66; he defeats Nechao and conquers Syria and Palestine, ibid.; he besieges Jerusalem, makes himself master of it, and carries away a great number of Jews captive to Babylon, 67; Nabuchodonosor's first dream, ibid.; that prince marches against Jerusalem, takes it, and carries away all its treasures, 68; he defeats the army of Pharaoh king of Egypt, returns to Jerusalem, and demolishes its fortifications, 69; he causes himself to be adored as a god, bid.; he besieges Tyre and takes it after a long siege, 70; Nabucholonosor's second dream, ibid.; he is reduced to the condition of beasts, ibid.; he recovers his former shape, ibid.; and ascends the throne. 72; he dies, ibid.

Naptha, kind of bitumen, very combustible, v. 174.

Naravasus Numidian lord, joins Barca in the war with the meresnaries, i. 278.

Naupactum, city of Ætolia, ii. 253; besieged by Acilius, vi. 354. Naxus, island, one of the Cyclades, ii. 352; sedition at Naxus, which occasions the revolt of the Ionians against Darius, ibid.

Neapolis, quarter of the city of Syracuse so called, iii. 248.

Nearchus, officer of Alexander, undertakes to view the coast, from the Indus to the bottom of the Persian gulf, v. 262; he succeeds

in his enterprise, 264.

Nechao, king of Egypt, i. 190; he undertakes to open a communication between the Nile and the Red Sea, ibid.; able navigators by his order undertake to sail round Africa, and happily effect it, 191; Nechao murches against the Babylonians and Medea, to put a stop to their progress, ibid.; he defeats Josish king of Judah, who opposed his march, ibid.; he beats the Babylonians, takes Carchemish, and returns into his kingdom, ibid.; on his way he passes through Jerusalem, deprives Jehoaz of the erown, and gives it to Jehoiakim, 192; he is conquered by Nabuchedososor, who retakes Carchemish, ibid.; death of Nechao, 193.

Nectanebus is placed by the revolted Egyptians upon the throne of Egypt in the room of Tachos, iv. 315; he is supported by Agesilaus, ibid.; by his aid he reduces the party of the prince of Mendes, 316; not being able to defend himself against Cohus, he escapes into Æthiopia, from whence he never returns, 341.

Nehemiah. Jew, emphearer of Artaxerxes, obtains permission of that prince to return to Jerusalem, and to rebuild its fortifications, iii. 130; he acquits himself of his commission with incredible

_zeai, 121.

Naleus of Scepais, to whom Theophrastus had left the works of Aristotle, viii. 89.

Nemaca, games instituted near that city, i. 48.

Neolas, brother of Molo and Alexander, brings the latter the news of Molo's defeat by Antiochus, and then kills himself through

despair, vi. 191.

Neoptolemus, one of Alexander's captains. Provinces that fell to him after the death of that prince, v. 312; he joins Autipater and Craterus against Perviscas and Eumenes, 933; he marches with Craterus against the latter, ibid.; and is killed in a battle, 334; character of Neoptolemus, 332.

Neoptolemus, uncle of Pyrrhus, reigns in Epirus in his nephew's

place, i. 120; Pyrrhus causes him to be dethroned, ibid.

Neoptolemus, Greek poet, v. 64.

Neriglissar puts himself at the head of a conspiracy against Evilmerodach, king of Assyria, and reigns in his stead, ii. 72; he makes war against the Medes, and is killed in a battle, ibid.

Nero (C. Claudius), consul, quits his province and makes haste to

join his colleague, in order to attack Asdrubal in conjunction with him, i. 323.

Nevius, Roman officer, surprises Philip's camp near Apollonia, in

the night, vi. 834.

Nicaea, city built by Alexander, at the place where he had defeated Porus, v. 247.

Nicander is deputed by the Ætolians to Philip, vi. 332; he endervours to engage that prince to join Antiochus against the Romans, 333.

Nicanor, young officer in Alexander's army. Rash boldness which costs him his life, v. 941.

Nicanor, Cassander's brother, is put to death by order of Olympias, v. 356.

Nisanor, governor of Media, under Antiochus, is surprised in his camp in the night by Seleucus, and obliged to fly, v. 377; he is killed in a battle, 394.

Nicanor, officer of Seleucus Ceraunus, conspires against that prince, and poisons him, vi. 186; he is put to death by Achaeus, ibid.

Nicanor, lieutenant-general of Antiochus Epiphanes, marches against the Jews, and is defeated by Judas Maccabaeus, vii. 113, &c.; Demetrius Soter sends him with an army into Judaea, to assist Alcimus, 260; he is defeated by Judas Maccabaeus, and is killed in

battle, ibid.

Nicias, general of the Athenians, makes them conclude a pesce with the Lacedsemonians, iii. 223; he opposes the war of Sicily in vain, 235; he is appointed general with Lamachus and Alcibiades, ibid.; his conduct on arriving in Sicily, 247; after some expeditions he forms the siege of Syracuse, 254; the city is reduced to extremities, 257; the arrival of Gylippus changes the face of affairs, 258; Nicias writes to the Athenians to state his condition, and to demand reinforcement, 260; two colleagues are appointed him, 265; he s compelled by his colleagues to engage in a sea-fight, in which he is defeated 267; his land-army is also defeated. 260; he hazards another sea-fight in concert with Demosthenes, and is again defeated, 274; he determines to retire by land, 275; he is reduced to surrender at discretion, 278; is condemned to die and executed. 280.

Nicias, treasurer to Perseus, throws the treasures of that prince into the sea by his order, vii. 161; Perseus puts him to death, 162, Nicocles, son of Evagoras, reigns at Salamis after his father's death.

iv. 309.

Nicoeles, king of Paphos, submits to Ptolemy, v. 374; he makes an alliance secretly with Antigonus, ibid.; he kills himself, ibid.

Nicocles, tyrant of Sicyon, is driven out of that city by Aratus, vi-

Nicogenes, in whose house Themistocles resides at Ægae, supplies his guest with the means of going to the court of Persia in safety,

Nicolaus, one of Ptolemy's generals, refuses to desert with Theodotus, and continues to adhere to Ptolemy, vi 195.

Nicolaus, a venerable old man, barangues the Syracusans, to dissuade them from condemning the Athenian generals, iii. 279.

Nicomedes I. king of Bithynia, i. 116.

Misomedes II. son of Prusias, king of Bithynia, goes to Rome, vi.

217; he kills his father, who had given orders for murdering him, and reigns in his stead, 218; he sets up a child under the name of Ariarathes, and causes the kingdom of Cappadocia to be demanded for him of the Romans, viii. 70; his death, 71.

Nicomedes III. ascends the throne of Bithynia, viii. 71; he is dethroned by Mithridates, ibid.; the Romans reinstate him, ibid.; he is again expelled by Mithridates, 74; Sylla reconciles him and Mithridates, who restores him his dominions, 88; Nicomedes, in rratitude for the services of the Romans, at his death leaves the Roman people his heirs, 93.

Nicostratus of Argos commands one of the detachments of Ochus's

army in that prince's expedition into Egypt, iv. 340.

Nicostratus, practor of the Achaeans, defeats the troops of Androsthenes, who commanded for Philip at Corinth, vi. 312.

Nilacus, son of Codrus, settles in Asia Minor, il. 263. Nile, river of Africa. Its sources, i. 134; cataracts of the Nile, ibid.; causes of its inundation, 135; time that its inundation continues, ib.d.; measure or depth of its inundation, 136; canals of the Nile, 137; fertility occasioned by the Nile, 138; double prospect occasioned by the Nile, 140; canal of communication between the two seas by the Nile, ibid.

Nimrod, founder of the Assyrian empire, ii. 42; history confounds him with his son Ninus, ibid.; Scripture places him very near

Abraham: for what reason, 45.

N ineveh, city of Assyria. Its foundation, ii. 45; description of that city, ibid.; kings of Nineveh, 61, &c.; destruction of that city, 6Ť.

Ninus, king of Assyria, succeeds Nimrod, and is often confounded with that prince, ii. 45; he builds Nineveh, ibid.; his expedition against the Bactrians, 46; he marries Semiramis, and has a son by her, ibid.; he dies soon after, 47.

Ninyas, son of Ninus and Semiramis, reigns in Assyria, ii. 56; ef-

feminacy and indolence of that prince, ibid.

Nitocris, queen of Babylon, ii. 73; inscription which she causes to be put upon her tomb, ibid.

No-Amon, famous city of Egypt, i. 187.

Nobility. Wherein true nobility consists, v. 368.

Nomi, or governments of Egypt, i. 126.

Numidians, people of Africa, whose principal force consisted in cavalry, ii. 1.

Nypsius, general of Dionysius the Younger, relieves the citadel of Syracuse, closely besieged by the Syracusans, iv. 229; he burns and plunders part of the city of Syracuse, 231; Dionysius drives him out of Syracuse, of which he had made himself master, 241.

Nysa, nurse of Bacchus, vi. 47.

Nyssa, sister of Mithridates, falls into the hands of Lucullus, viii. 99.

О.

OBELISES of Egypt, i. 128.

Ocha, sister of Ochus, is buried alive by order of that prince, iv. 323.

Ochus takes the name of Darius, for having put a stop to the instilence of Smerdis the Magian, it. 323.—See Darius I.

Oshus, son of Artaxerxes Longimanus, marshes at the head of a great army against Sogdianus, iii. 212; he gets that prince into his hands, and puts him to death, ibid.; he ascends the throne of Persia, and changes his name from Ochus to Darius, ibid.—See Darius Nothus.

Ochus, son of Artaxerxes Mnemon, opens his way to the empire by the marder of his brothers, iv. 319; he ascends the throne of Persia, and takes the name of Artaxerxes, 323; cruelties which he commits, ibid.; his successful expeditions against Phoenicia, Cyprus, and Egypt, 336, &c.; after those expeditions he abandoss himself to pleasures, 342; he is poisoned by Bagoas, 343.

Octavia, widow of Marcellus, and sister of young Caesar, marries Antony, viii. 159; she leaves Rome to go to Antony, and arrives at Atkens, 161; Antony forbids her to come any further, ibid.; she returns to Rome, ibid.; affront which she receives from An-

tony, 165.

Octavina (Cn.), practor, commands the Roman fleet against Perceus, vii. 167; means which he uses to make that prime quit the island of Samothracia, which was deemed a sacred and inviolable asylum, 188; Perseus puts himself into his hands, 189; Octavius receives the honour of a triumph, 200; the Romans send him to Syria as ambassador, 252; he is murdered there, 258; the senste creet a tatute to him. 259.

Octavius, Crassus's lieutenant, endeavours in vain to conside him for his defeat, vii. 355: he accompanies that general in his interview

his defeat, vii. 355; he accompanies that general in his interview with Surena, 359; he is killed in defending him, ibid.

Odeon, or theatre of music at Athena, iii. 186.

Œbares, Darius's groom, by his address, ascures the crown of Persia to his master, ii. 824.
 Œbazas, Persian lord, barbarous cruekty of Darius in respect to him.

ii. 345.

Olthaces, king of Colchis, is subdued by Pompey, who makes him serve as an ornament in his triumph, viii. 125.

Olympia, castle in the neighbourhood of Syracuse, iii. 250.

Olympiads. Epocha of the Olympiads, ii. 261.

Olympias, daughter of Neoptolemus, is married to Philip king of Macedonia, and has by that prince Alexander the Great, v. 10; Philip repudiates her, 63; Alexander carries her to Epirus, 64; Polysperchon recals her from Epirus, whither she had retired during Antipater's regency, and divides the government with her. 342; Olympias causes Aridscus, and his wife Eurydice, to be put to death, 356; Cassander besiges her in Pydna, whether she had retired, takes her prisoner, and puts her to death, ibid.

Olympic. Solemn games of Greece, i. 47; ladies admitted to them,

63.

Olynthus, city of Thrace, iv. 258; the Lacedaemenians declare war against it, ibid.; it is compelled to surrender, 261; Olynthus, upon the point of being besieged by Philip, implores the aid of the Athenians, v. 23. Philip makes himself master of that city by the treason of two of its citzens, and plunders it, 27.

Onesicritus, philosopher and historian. Alexander deputes him to

the Brachmans, to engage them to join in his train, v. 250; he can prevail upon none of them to do so except Calanus, 251.

Onesimus, Macedoniaa lord, not being able to disuade Perseus from making war with the Romans, quits his party, and retires to Rome, vii. 164.

Onias, son of Jaddus, high-priest of the Jews, succeeds his father,

v. 337; his death, vii. 93.

Onias, high-priest of the Jews, makes himself venerable for his piety, vii. 86; he refuses Heliodorus the treasures kept in the temple of Jerusalem, ibid.; he is deposed by the intrigues of Jason his brother, 90; his death, 93.

Onias, son of the former, having failed of the high-priesthood, retires into Egypt, vii. 265; he builds a temple there for the Jews, ibid.,

Se c

Onomarchus, brother of Philomelus, general of the Phocacans, takes upon him the command of the troops in his stead, v. 17; he is defeated by Philip, and killed in the battle, 19; his body is fastened to a gibbet, ibid.

Onomastes, governor of Thrace for Philip, executes the cruel decree of that prince against the people of Maronaea, vii. 46.

Ophellas, governor of Libya and Cyrenaica, revolts against Ptolemy, and renders himself independent, v. 383; he suffers himself to be seduced by Agathocles, and carries him troops into the country of the Carthaginians, 384, i. 252; Agathocles puts him to death, ibid.

Oppius, Roman proconsul, marches against Mithridates, and is tak-

en prisoner, vili. 74.

Oracles. Famous ones of antiquity, i. 37; of Dodona, ibid.; of Trophonius in Bœotia, 38; of the Branchidae, ibid.; of Claroa, ibid.; of Delphoa, 39; usual character of oracles, 41; whether they are to be ascribed to the operation of devils, or the knavery of men, 42. Orations. Funeral orations pronounced in Greece over the tombs

of those who had died fighting for their country, iii, 182.

Orchestra, part of the theatre of the ancients, i. 87.

Orchomenus, part of Bœotia, where the battle between Sylla and

Archelaus was fought, viii. 84.

Orestes, son and successor of Agamemnon, king of Mycenae, ii. 259. Orestes, Roman commissary, goes to Corinth, and notifies to the Achaeans the decree of the senate for separating several cities from their league, vii. 228; he flies to escape the violence of the people, ibid.

Oretes, governor of Asia Minor for Cambyses, puts Polycrates to death, and seizes the island of Samos, ii. 187; Darius puts him to

_ death, 327.

Oroandes, of Crete, promises Perseus to receive him into his ship, and embarks part of the riches of that prince, vii. 188; he runs away with those treasures, 189.

Orobazus is sent ambassador to Sylla by Arsaces, king of Parthia, to make an alliance with the Romans, viii. 70; Arsaces puts him to

death at his return, ibid.

Orodes, king of Parthia, vii. 341; war of that prince with the Romans under Crassus, ibid., &c.; Orodes, jealous of the glory Surena had acquired by the defeat of Crassus, puts him to death, viii. 3; grief of that prince for the death of his son Pacorus, 7; he VOL. VIII.

chooses Phraates for his successor, who causes him to be put to

Oromasdes, divinity worshipped by the Persians, ii. 234.

Orentes, son-in-law of Artaxerxes Mnemon, commands the land-army of that prince in the war against Evageras iv. 52; he accuses Tiribasus falsely, 53; he terminates the war with Evagoras by a treaty of peace, ibid.; Artaxerxes punishes him for his false accusation, 57.

Orontes, governor of Mysia, joins with the provinces of Asia Minor in their revolt against Artaxerxes Mnemon, and then betrays them.

iv. 318.

Orphans. Charondas's law in favour of them, iii. 172.

Orsaces, an old general, accompanies Pacorus in his expedition by

order of Orodes, viii. 3; he is killed in a battle, 4.

Oraines, governor of Pasargada, re-establishes good order throughout the whole province v. 256; he goes to meet Alexander with magnificent presents, ibid; he is put to death in consequence of the secret intrigues of the cunuch Bagoas, 257.

Orthia. Inhuman worship rendered by the Lacedaemonians to Dia-

na, surnamed Orthia, ii. 273.

Ortygia, island near Syracuse, iii. 249.
Osiris, Persian lord, marches at the head of an army against Megabysus, iii. 118; he is defeated and taken prisoner, ibid.; Megaby-

sus generously sends him back to Artaxerxes, ibid.

Ostanes, chief of the Magi, accompanies Xerxes in his expedition

against Greece, iii. 76.

Ostracism, a kind of sentence amongst the Athenians, by which persons were condemned to banishment, iii. 17; the banishment of Hyperbolus puts an end to the Ostracism, 230.

Osymandyas, king of Egypt, i. 173; magn ficent edifices which he caused to be erected, ibid.; famous library formed by that prince.

ibid.; his tomb surrounded with a circle of gold, which Camby-

ses afterwards took away ibid.

Otanes, Persian lord, discovers the imposture of Smerdis the Magian, by the means of his daughter, ii. 190; he forms a conspiratory against that usurper, ibid.; he re-establishes Syloson, tyrant of Samos. 333.

Othryades, Lacedaemonian, obtains the victory for the Lacedaemonians over the Argives by his valour, i. 102; he kills himself upon

the field of battle, bid.

Oxathres, brother of Darius, distinguishes himself in the battle of Issus, v. 117; Alexander puts Bessus into his hands, to inflict upon that traitor the punishment he deserved, \$10.

Oxyartes, Persian prince, entertains Alexander in his house, and

gives him his daughter Roxana in marriage, v. 227.

Oxydracae, people of India, v. 256; their capital besieged and taken by Alexander, ibid.; they submit to that prince, 257.

Oxyrinchus, city of the Lower Thebias, i. 156; wonder related of that city by the Abbe Fleury in his ecclesiastical history, ibid.

Р.

Paconus, son of Orodes, king of the Parthians, enters Syria at the head of an army, and besieges Antioch, viii. 3; he raises the sege

of that city, and is defeated in a battle, 4; he returns into Syria, and is defeated and killed in a battle, 7.

Pagan. Definition of a Pagan by Tertullian, iii. 109.—See Pagan.

Paganism. General reflections upon Paganism, i. 26, &c.; absurdities of Paganism, 95, &c.; what the highest perfection to be expected from it was, iii. 173.

Palamedes, tragedy written by Euripides on the occasion of the cleath of Socrates, iv. 104.

Palestine, province of Syria, i. 24.

Palestrae, public schools in which the athletae exercised themselves in wrestling, i. 52.

Palica, city of Sicily, near which there was a temple famous for the sanctity of the oaths taken there, iii. 16f.

Palisades, difference of those used by the Greeks and Romans in

fortifying their camps, vi. 304.

Pammenes commands the troops sent by the Thebans to the aid of Artabasus, and occasions his gaining two considerable victories, iv. 324.

Pammenes, Athenian general, marches to the aid of the city of Megalopolis, besieged by the Lacedaemonians, iv. 333.

Pamphylia, province of Asia Minor, i. 24.

Panathenea, festival celebrated at Athena, i. 27.

Paneratium, kind of combat amongst the ancients, i. 55.

Panetius, Stoic philosopher. He accompanies Scipio in his embassy to the kings of the East, viii. 279.

Pantauchus, Perseus's ambassador to Gentius, engages that prince in his master's interest against the Romans. vil. 73.

Panthea, wife of Abradates, is taken prisoner by Cyrus, ii. 117; conduct of that prince in regard to her, ibid.; she brings over her husband to Cyrus, 118; her discourse with him before he sets out for the battle, 130; the excess of her grief upon the death of Abradates, 135; she stabs herself with a dagger, and falls dead upon her husband, ibid.

Paphlagonia, province of Asia Minor, i. 23.

Papyrus, plant of Egypt. Description of it, i. 166.

Paralus, last of the legitimate children of Pericles, dies of the plague, iii. 188.

Parchment. Invention of parchment, i. 167.

Paris, Trojan, returning home with Helen, whom he had carried off, is driven by a tempest into one of the mouths of the Nile, i. 181; Proteus, king of Egypt, obliges him to leave Melen with him, and to quit Egypt, ibid.; Paris returns to Troy, ibid.

Parmenio, one of Alexander's generals, is placed at the head of the infantry, in the expedition of that prince against the Persians, and does him great service, v. 92; he seizes the pass of Syria, and makes himself master of the small city of Issus, 111; Alexander confides the treasures laid up in Damascus, and the keeping of the pr soners, to him, 124; Parmenio advises that prince to accept Darius's offers, 145; surprese of Parmenio, on seeing Alexander prostrate himself before the high-priest Jaddus, 148; Alexander causes him to be killed as an accomplice in the conspiracy of Philotas, 207; eulogy of Parmenio, ibid.

Parmys, daughter of the true Smerdis, marries Darius, ii. 524. Parrieide. Reasons that prevented Solon from making any law against that crime, ii. 296.

Partheniae, name given to the illegitimate children of the Lacedaemonians. When grown up, they banish themselves from Sparts, and settle at Tarentum in Italy, i. 104.

Parthenon, temple of Minerva at Athena, iii. 135.

Parthia, country of the Parthians province of Upper Asia, i. 23; beginning of the empire of the Parthians, vii. 338; kings of Par-

this from Areaces I. to Orodes, 339, &c.

Parysatis, sister and wife of Darius Nothus, iii. 213: her influence over her husband, ibid.; extreme fondness of Parysatis for her son Cyrus, 299; she obtains pardon of Artaxerxes for that son, and causes him to be sent back to his government, 392; cruelty and jealousy of Parysatis, iv. 14; she poisons Statira, 15; Artaxerxes confines her in Babylon, ibid.

Pasargada, e-ty of Persia, submits to Alexander, v. 266.

Paturbemia, officer of Apries, not having been able to seize Amasis in the midst of the revolted Egyptians, is treated in the most cruel manner by that prince, i. 196.

Patisithes, chief of the Magi, places his brother Smerdis upon the

throne of Persia, il. 187; he is k | ed with his brother, 190. Patroelus, governor of Babylon for Seleucus, abandons that city upon the approach of Demetrius, and retires into the marshes,

v. 379.

Patrockus commands the fleet sent by Ptolemy Philadelphus to the aid of the Athenians besieged by Antigonus Gonatas, vi. 102: he returns into Egypt, and at Caunus causes Sotades the satyric poet to be put to death, bid.

Patroslus. Athenian, cities Demosthenes before the judges as a violator of the laws, iv. 352; bad success of his accusation, ibid,

Patron, general of the Greeks in the pay of Darius, advises that prince in vain to confide the guard of his person to the Greeks, v. 187.

Paulus Æmilius.—See Emilius.

Pausanias, king of Lacedsemon, commands the army of the Greeks jointly with Aristides, and gains a great battle over the Persians, iii. 68; he makes the Lacedaemonians lose the chief command by his haughtiness, 86; his secret intrigues with the Persians, 87; he is discovered and punished, 88.

Pausanias, king of Lacedaemon, commands at the siege of Athens, iii. 316; he obtains peace for the Athenians, 331; he neglects to march to the aid of Lysander, and is summoned to take his trial on his return, iv. 37; he refuses to appear, and is condemned to

die, ibid.; be retires to Teges, and dies there, ibid.

Pausanias, Macedonian prince, possesses himself of the throne of

Macedonia, v. 3; he is dethroned by Iphicrates, ibid.

Pausanias, young Macedonian lord, cannot obtain satisfaction of Philip for an insult which he had received from Attalus, v. 65; he assassinates Philip in revenge, and is torn in pieces upon the spot,

Pausistratus, commander of the Rhodian fleet, is defeated by Polyxenides, Antiochus's admiral, and killed in the battle, vi. 359. Pelopidas, Theban. His character, iv. 262; his friendship with Epaminondas, ibid.; he abandons Thebes, and retires to Athens, 264: he forms the design of restoring the liberty of his country, ibid.; he is elected Bootarch, 268; he drives the garrison out of the citadel, 269; he causes the Athenians to declare for the Thebans, 271; he gains an advantage over the Lacedaemonians near Tegyra, 273; be commands the sacred battalion at the battle of Leuctra, 277; he is created Bootarch with Epaminondas, ravages Laconia, and advances to the gates of Sparta, 281; at his return he is accused and acquitted, 285; the Thebans send him ambassador to the court of Persia, 287; his influence with Artaxerxes, ibid.; Pelopidas marches against Alexander tyrant of Pherae, and reduces him to reason, 290; he goes to Macedonia to appeare the troubles of that court, and brings away Philip as an hostage, 291; he returns into Thessaly, ibid.; he is seized, and made prisoner by treachery, 292; he animates Thebe, wife of Alexander, against her husband, 293; he is delivered by Epsminondas, 294; Pelopidas marches against the tyrant, gains a victory over him, and is killed in the battle, 295, &c.; angular honours paid to his memory, 297.

Pelopidas, one of the officers of Mithridates, is sent ambassador by that prince to demand satisfaction of the Romans, and to declare

war against them in case of refusal, viii. 72.

Peloponnesus, province and peninsula of Greece, now called the Morea, ii. 252; Peloponnesian war, iii. 175.

Pelops gives his name to Peloponnesus, ii. 262.

Pelusium, city of Lower Egypt, i. 141.

Pentucos omedimn, cit zens of the first class at Athens, iv. 128.

Pentuthlum, assemblage of several agonistic exercises amongst the Greeks, i. 56.

Penthilus, son of Orostes, reigns at Mycenae with his brother Tisamenes, ii. 262.

Perdiceas, son of Amyntas II. is placed upon the throne of Macedonia by Pelopidas, iv. 291; he is killed in a battle against the II-lyrians, ibid.

Perdiccas, one of Alexander's generals, receives that prince's ring a moment before his death, v. 284; provinces which fell to him after the death of Alexander, 312; he is appointed guardian of Aridaeus, and regent of the empire, 311; he puts Status, Alexander's widow, to death, 314; he quells the revolt of the Greeks in Upper Asia, 315; he puts Eumenes into possession of Cappadecia, 331; he marries Cleopatra, Alexander's sister, ibid.; his unfortunate expedition into Egypt, 333; he is killed there, 335.

Pergamus, city of Great Mysia in Asia Minor, i. 23; kings of Pergamus, 116; the kingdom of Pergamus becomes a Roman pro-

vince, vii. 283.

Periander, tyrant of Corinth, is ranked in the number of the seven

sages, ii. 315.

Perioles, Athenian. His extraction, iii. 122; his education, ibid.; care that he takes to cultivate his mind by the study of the sciences, and to exercise himself in eloquence, 123; means that he employs for conciliating the favour of the people, 126; he undertakes to reduce the power of the Areopagus, and succeeds in it, 127; Thucydides is opposed to him, 133; he adorns Athens with magnificent buildings, 134; envy of the Atheniana against Periode

C C 2

cles, ibid.; he justifies himself, and causes Thucydides to be banished, 136; he changes his conduct in respect to the people, 137;

his great authority, 138; his disinterestedness, 140.

Expeditions of Perioles into the Thractan Chersonesus, iil. 142: about Peloponnesus, ibid.; and against Eubosa, 143; he reduces the Samians, and demolishes their walls, 144; he causes aid to be granted the people of Coreyra against the Coranthians, ibid.; trouble given him by his enemies, 150; he induces the Athenians to enter into a war with the Lacedaemonians, 154; and to shut themselves up within their walls, 178; he prevents them from taking the field, whilst their lands are ravaged, 179; he pronounces the funeral oration of the Athenians killed during the campaign, 182; the Athenians divest him of the command, and fine him, 187; grief of Pericles for the death of his son Paralus. 188: the Athenians reinstate him, ibid.; and permit him to inroll his illegitimate son amongst the citizens, 196; death of Pericles. ibid. ; his panegyrie, ibid., &c.

Pericles, son of the former, one of the Athenian generals, who defeated the Lacedaemonians near the islands Arginusae, is con-

demned with his colleagues to die, iii. 309.

Perinthua, city of Thrace, besieged by Philip, and delivered by the Athenians, v. 44, 47.

Perjury. Punishment of perjury in Egypt, i. 148. Perpenna, Roman ambassador to Gentius, is imprisoned, viii. 174: Anieius delivers him, and sends him to Rome with the news of his victory, 175; Perpeana, when consul, marches against Aristonicus, defeats him in a battle, and takes him prisoner, 283;

he dies on his return to Rome, ibid.

Perseus, first king of Mycenae, ii. 258.
Perseus, son of Philip, last king of Macedonia, forms a conspiracy against his brother Demetrius, and accuses him to Philip, vii. 65, &c.; his speech against his brother, 70; Perseus removes from court to avoid his father's indignation, 84; he takes possession of the throne of Macedonia after his father's death, 85; he puts Antigonus, whom his father had chosen his successor, to death, 130; he prepares secretly for war against the Romans, ibid.; he endeavours to gain allies, ibid.; he tries in vain to bring over the Achaeans, 131; the Romans are informed of his secret measures, 133; Eumenes gives them fresh information concerning his proceedings, ibid.; Perseus endeavours to rid himself of that prince, first by assassination, 135; and afterwards by poison, 136; rupture between Persons and the Romans, 139; interview of Perseus and Marcius, 140; war declared in form, 144; Perseus advances with his troops near the river Peneus, 148; battle of the cavalry, in which that prince gains a considerable advantage, and makes an itl use of it, 150; he makes proposals of peace, which are rejected, 153; he takes fright upon the arrival of the consul Marcius in Macedonia, and leaves him the passage open, 161; he resumes courage soon after, 162; he solicits aid on all sides, 171; his avarice loses him considerable succours, 172; he is entirely defeated and put to flight by Paulus Æmilius at the battle of Pydna, 183, &c.: he is taken prisoner with his children, 189; and serves as an ornament in the triumph of Paulus Æmilius, 199; death of Perseus, 200.

Persepolis, capital city of Persia, subjected by Alexander, who

burns the palace of it in a drunken revel, v. 184, &c.

Persia, province of Asia, i. 23; foundation of the Persian empire by Cyrus, ii. 95; kings who reigned in Persia.—Cyrus, ibid. ; Cambyses, 173; Smerdis the Magian, 188; Darius, son of Hystaspes, 323; Xerxes, iii. 22; Artaxerxes Longimanus, 101; Xerxes II., 211 : Sogdianus, 212; Darius Nothus, ibid.; Artaxerxes Mnezaco, 321; Ochus, iv. 323; Arses, 344; Darius Codomanus, ibid.; destruction of the empire of the Persians by Alexander, v. 190; vices which occasioned the decline, and at length the rain of the Persian empire, ibid., ii. 940; manners and customs of the Persians, 198; education of the Persians in the time of Cyrus, 97; government of the Persians, 193; form of it monarchical, ibid.; coronation of their kings, iii. 320; respect paid to them, ii. 193; manner of educating their children, 195; public council of the Persians, 196; administration of justice, 198; attention to the provinces, 202; invention of posts and couriers, 207; care of their finances, 209; of war, 211; entrance among the troops 212; arms of the Persians, 213; their chariots armed with scythes, ibid.; military discipline of the Persians, 215; their order of battle, 216; quality of the Persian troops in the time of Cyrus, and after that prince, 221; arts and sciences of the Persians, 222; their religion, 232; marriages and burials, 238.

Petalism, kind of sentence established at Syracuse, iii. 166.

Petra, a very strong place in the country of the Nabathacan Arabiana, v. 879.

Petra Oxiana, inaccessible rock, v. 218; Alexander makes himself

master of it, 220.

Peucestes, one of Alexander's captains, distinguishes himself at the siege of the city of Oxydracae, v. 256; provinces which fell to him after the death of Alexander, 312; he opposes the progress of Pithon, and drives him out of Media, 365.

Phalantus, general of the Spartans called Partheniae, settles them at Tarentum, i. 104.

Phalanx, Macedonian. Description of it, v. 11.

Phalaris, his bull taken at the siege of Agrigentum, and sent to

Carthage, i. 236.

Phaleous is appointed general of the Phocaeans during the sacred war, in the room of Phayllus, v. 19; he pillages the temple of Delphos, as the other had done, and is deposed, ibid.

Phalerus, port of Athens, iii. 81.

Phanes of Halicarnassus, general of the Greek auxiliaries, in the army of Amasis, upon some discontent goes over to Cambyses, ii. 179; the Greeks in the king of Egypt's service murder his children in revenge, 180.

Pharaoh, name common to the kings of Egypt, i. 174; one of them

gives his daughter to Solomon in marriage, 184.

Pharisees, powerful sect in Judaea, vii. 299; persecution of Alexander Jannaeus and his party by the Pharisees, 514; end of their

tyranny, 329.

Pharnabasus, governor of Asia, and general of the troops of Darius and Artaxerxes, kings of Persia, aids the Lacedaemonians against the Athenians, iii. 292; he makes peace with the latter, 294; he sends complaints against Lysander to Sparta, 335; his whole pro-

vince is ravaged by Agesilaus, iv. 33; interview of Agesilaus and Pharnabasus, 34; the latter is charged by Artaxerxes with the war against Egypt, 311; the enterprise miscarries through his

fault, 31**3**.

Pharmaces makes the army revolt against his father Mithridates, and is elected king in stead, viii. 131; he is declared the friend and ally of the Romans, 133; he is defeated and driven out of Pontus by Caesar, 154.

Pharnacias, cunuch of Xerxes II., supplies Sogdianus with the

means for assassinating that prince, iii. 211.

Pharos, its famous tower or light-house, vi. 40.

Phasael, brother of Herod, is made governor of Jerusalem, vii: 334: he is taken by the Parthians and put in irons, 335; he kills himself to avoid the ignominy of punishment, ibid.

Phayllus, general of the Phocacans during the sacred war, plunders the temple of Delphos to defray the expenses of that war, v. 19;

his death, ibid.

Phayllus, of Crotona, athleta. His affection for the Greeks, and valour, v. 173.

Phebidas, Lacedaemonian, sets out from Sparta at the head of a body of troops against Olynthus, iv. 258; he seizes the citadel of Thebes by fraud, 259; he is deprived of the command, and fined, 260.

Phedyma, daughter of Otanes, and wife of Smerdis the Magian. discovers that usurper's imposture, ii. 189; she marries Darius

after the death of Smerdis, 324. Phenicia, or Phonicia, province of Syria, i. 24; revolt of Phonicia

against Ochus, iv. 336.

Pherendates, Persian lord, made governor of Egypt by Ochus, iv.

341. Pherenicus, one of the principal conspirators against the tyrants of Thebes, iv. 264.

Pheron, king of Egypt, i. 181; action of that prince against the

Nile, ib d.

Phidias, famous painter and sculptor. Pericles gives him the direction of the public buildings at Athens, iii. 136; ingratitude of the Athenians to Phidias, 151.

Phila, Antipater's daughter, is married to Craterus, v. 327; after the death of Craterus she marries Demetrius Poliorcetes, ibid. : she kills herself by poison, vi. 36; praise of that princess, 327.

Phila, daughter of Seleucus and Stratonice, marries Antiochus Gonatas, vi. 66.

Philadelphus, name given ironically to Ptolemy II. king of Egypt,

vi. 39.—See Ptolemy Philadelphus.

Philammon assassinates Ars.noe, sister and wife of Ptolemy Philopator, vi. 203; he is beaten to death with staves by the ladies of honour to that princess, 274.

Philaeni, two brothers, citizens of Carthage, sacrifice their lives for the good of their country, i. 226; the Carthaginians out of grati-

tude consecrate two alters to them, ibid.

Philaenius, Lacedaemonian, accompanies Hannibal in his expeditions, and composes the history of that great captain, i. 345.

Philaetera, founder of the kingdom of Pergamus, iii. 6, vi. 104; means which he uses for supporting himself in that kingdom, ibid. Philemon, comic poet, preferred by the Greeks to Menander in his own life time, i. 87.

Philidas, one of the conspirators against the tyrants of Thebes, finds means to make himself their secretary, iv. 264; on the day fixed by the conspirators, he invites the tyrants to a supper, 265; the

conspirators kill them at his house, 268.

Philip, son of Amyntas II. king of Macedonia. His birth. v. 2: Pelopidas carries him to Thebes as an hostage, 4; he flies from Thebes into Macedonia, and is placed upon the throne, ibid.; beginning of his reign, 5; he makes a captious peace with the Athenians, 6; his first conquests, ibid.; birth of Alexander, 10; Philip's care of his education, ibid.; he endeavours to subject Thrace, and takes Methone, at the siege of which place he loses an eye, 18; he conciliates the amity of the Thessalians, and expels their tyrants, 19; he endeavours to seize the pass of Thermopylae in vain, 20; takes the city of Olynthus, notwithstanding the efforts of the Athenians to prevent it, 27; he declares for the Thebans against the Phocaeans, and begins in that manner to share in the sacred war, 28; he lulls the Athenians with a false peace and false promises, 29; he seizes Thermopylae, reduces the Phoeseans, and terminates the sacred war, 32; he causes himself to be admitted into the council of the Amphietyons, 33.

Philip, on his return into Macedonia, pushes his conquests into Illyrium and Thrace, 34; he enters into a league with the Thebans, Argives, and Messenians, for attacking Peloponnesus with their joint forces, 38; Athens declaring for the Lacedaemonians, breaks that league, 39; Philip makes an attempt upon Eubera, ibid.; Phocion drives him out of that island, 41; Philip forms the siege of Perinthus and Byzantium, 43, 44; Phoeion obliges him to raise both those sieges, 47; Philip subjects Atheas king of the Scythians, and the Triballi, people Mossia, 49; by his intrigues he causes himself to be declared generalissimo of the Greeks in the council of the Amphictyons, 51; he seizes Elataea, ibid.; the Athenians and Thebans enter into a league against him, 55; he makes proposals of peace which are rejected by the advice of Demosthenes, ibid.; battle of Chaeronea in which Philip gains a great victory, 56, &c.; Philip, in the council of the Amphictyons, causes himself to be declared general of the Greeks against the Persians, and prepares for that great expedition, 62: domestie troubles in his family, 63; he repudiates Olympias, and marries another wife, ibid.; he celebrates the nuptials of Cleopatra, his daughter, with Alexander king of Epirus, and is killed in the midst of them, 65, &c. ; memorable actions and sayings of Philip, 66; good and bad qualities of that prince, 67, &c.

Philip, son of Demetrius, ascends the throne of Macedonia, vi. 181; his affection for Aratus, 205; he takes upon him the defence of the Achaenas against the Ætelians, 206; different expeditions of Philip against the enemies of the Achaenas, 212; strange abuse that Apelles his minister makes of his confidence, 213; irruption of Philip into Ætolia, 219; he takes Thermae by surprise, 220; excesses committed here by his soldiers, ib d.; prudence which he shows in his retreat, 222; troubles in his camp, 223; punishment of the authors of them, ibid.; irruption of Philip into Laconia, ibid.; new intrigue of the conspirators, 224; their punishment of the surprise of the conspirators, 224; their punishment of the wintrigue of the conspirators, 224; their punishment of the conspirators and conspirators are conspirators.

ment, 226, &c.; Philip takes Thebes of Phthiotis from the Æts-

lians, 229; he concludes a peace with them, 230.

Philip concludes a treaty with Hannibal, v. 232; he makes preparations for carrying the war into Italy, 233; he is surprised and defeated by the Romans at Apollonia, 234; his change of conduct, ibid.; his bad faith and irregularities, 235; he causes Aratus to be poisoned, ib.d.; he makes himself master of the city and eastle of Lasus, 237; he gains several advantages over the Ætolians, 241; he is repulsed near the city of Elia, 242; different actions of Ph-lip against Sulpitius, 250, &c.; he makes peace with the Romans, 268; he enters into a league with Antiochus for invading the dominions of Ptolemy Epiphanes, 275; bad success of Ph-lip against Attalus and the Rhodians, ibid.; his cruel treatment of the Canians, 276; he besieges and takes Abydos, 277, &c.; he ravages Attica, 281; the Romans declare war

aga:nst h.m., 282.

Philip makes ineffectual attempts against Athens, vi. 283; he endeavours to bring over the Ætolians to his party, 284; he is defeated in a battle by Sulpitius, 288; he is reduced to abandon the defiles along the Apsus, 295; ineffectual interview of Philip with Flamininus concerning peace, 301; he is defeated by Flamininus near Scotussa, and Cynoscephale in Thessalia, 306, &c.; the Remans grant him peace, 313; Philip aids Quint us against Nabis, 322, &c.; his conduct to Scipio, 357; Philip's causes of discontent from the Romans, vii. 41, &c.; the Romans order him to evacuate the cities of Thrace, 43; he vents his rage upon the inhabitanta of Maronaea, 44; he sends his son Demetrius on an embassy to Rome, 47; complaints against Philip carried to Rome. ibid; the Romans send back his son with ambassadors, 62; Philip prepares to renew the war with the Romans, 63; plot of Perseus against Demetrius, 65, &c.; he accuses him to Philip, 68; upon a new accusation Philip causes Demetrius to be put to death, 83; he discovers his innocence some time after, and Perseus's guilt, ibid.; whilst he meditates the punishment of the latter, he dies. 85.

Philip pretends himself son of Perseus, and seizes the kingdom of Macedonia, vii. 227; he is defeated and killed by Tremellius, ibid. Philip, one of Alexander's captains. Provinces that fell to him after

that prince's death, v. 812.

Philip, in concert with his brother Antiochus, destroys the city of Mopsuestia, to avenge the death of his brother Seleucus, vii. 306; he reigns in Syria with his brother Demetrius, after having driven out Eusebes, ibid.; Philip's death, 308.

Philip, Phrygian, is made governor of Judaea by Antiochus Epi-

phanes, vii. 96.

Philip, foster brother and favourite of Antiochus Epiphanes, is made governor by that prince of his son Antiochus Eupator, and regent of Syria, vii. 118; Lysias usurps that employment from him, 250; Philip retires into Egypt, ibid.

Philip of Acarsania, physician, known from the salutary draughs

which he gave Alexander, v. 105.

Philipshurgh, town of Germany, besieged and taken by the French, vii, 30,

Philisens is sent by the king of Persia to reconcile the states of Greece, iv. 287.

Philistus, rich citizen of Syracuse, pays a fine for Dionysius, iv. 172; Dionysius banishes him, 202; Dionysius the Younger recals him to court, 212; death of Philistus, 227; he may be considered as a great historian, 212,

Philocles, Macedonian, devoted to Perseus, is sent by Philip on an embassy to Rome, vii. 81; at his return he delivers a forged letter to that prince under the counterfeited seal of T. Quintius, which occasions the death of Demetrius, 82; Philip causes him to be seized and put to the torture, in which he dies, 84.

Philodes, one of the Athenian generals, is defeated and made prisoner with his colleagues at the battle of Ægospotamos, iii. 315;

he is put to death, ibid.

Philomelus, general of the Phocaeans, sets them against the decree of the Amphictyons, and induces them to take arms, v. 16; he makes himself master of the temple of Delphi, and takes the riches of it to pay his troops, ibid.; he is defeated in a battle, and throws himself headlong from the top of a rock, 17.

Philonides, runner to Alexander the Great, famous for his swiftness. i. 58.

Philopæmen, Megalopolitan, induces hisfellow-citizens to reject the offers of Cleomenes, vi. 171; he signalizes himself at the battle of Selasia, 177; he distinguishes himself in the battle near the city of Elis, 242; his education, 243; his great qual ties, ib d.; he is elected general of the horse by the Achaeans 246; he reforms the Achaean troops, 247; he is elected captain-general of the Achaesns, 261; he gains a famous victory over Machanidas, tyrant of Sparta, and kills him in the battle, 264; the Achaeans erect a statue to him, ibid.; honours which he receives in the assembly at the Nemacan games, 265; Philopæmen is defeated at sea by the tyrant Nabis, 337; he gains a famous victory over that tyrant, near Sparta, 338; after the death of Nabis he seizes Sparts, and obliges that city to enter into the Achaean league, 343; he refuses the presents offered him by the Spartans, ibid.; he secretly favours the Spartan exiles, and causes war to be declared against that city, vii. 25; he makes h maelf master of Sparta, and reinstates the exiles, 27; he attacks Messene, and is taken prisoner, 51; the Messenians put him to death, 52; honours paid to his memory, 53; trial of Philopomen after his death, ibid.

Philotas, son of Parmenio, commands a body of horse in Alexander's expedition against Persia, v. 92; pretended conspiracy of Philotas against Alexander, 201, &c.; he is put to death, 206.

Philotas, governor of Upper Asia, is put to death by Pithon, v. 355. Philoxenus, poet, favourite of Dionysius the tyrant. His generous frankness, iv. 200, &c.

Philoxenus, Macedonian, seizes Harpalus, and causes him to be put

to the torture, v. 273.

Phocaea, city of Ionia, is condemned to be destroyed by the Romans, vii. 283; the people of Marseilles, originally descended from that city, obtain pardon for it, ibid.

Phocion, general of the Athenians, drives Philip out of Euboes, v. 41; he makes that prince raise the siege of Perinthus and By.

zantium, 47; he rejects the offers of Harpalus, 271; he endeavours in vain to prevent the Athenians from engaging in the Lamian war, 315; he is condemned to die by the Athenians, 345; his body is carried out of the territory of Attica, 345; the Athenians erect a statue to him. and inter his bones honourably, 348;

character and praise of Phocion, 40, 271, 345, &c. Phocis, part of Greece, ii. 253; it is ravaged by Xerxes, iit. 50; the Lacedsemonians deprive the people of Phoeis of the custody of the temple of Delphi, 143; Perioles restores it to them, ibid.; the Phoeacans till the ground consecrated to Apollo, v. 16; they are declared guilty of sacrilege, and are fined, ibid.; they take arms against the decree of the Amphictyons, ibid. ; the latter make war against the Phosacans, 17: Philip reduces them, 32.

Phoroneus, king of Argos, ii. 258.

Phraates I. son of Priapatius, king of the Parthians, vii. 839. Phrastes II. succeeds his father Mithridates in the kingdom of Parthia, vii. 340; he is defeated three times by Antiochus Sidetes, 286; he releases Demetrius, 287; he defeats Antiochus, who is killed in the battle, ibid.; he marries one of that prince's daughters, 288; he is defeated by the Scythians, who had called in Autiochus to their aid, and is killed in his flight, 289.

Phraates III. surnamed Theos, king of the Parthians, vii. 341; he makes an alliance with the Romans during the war with Mithridates, ibid.; he espouses the part of Tigranes the Younger

against his father, ibid. ; death of Phraates, ibid.

Phraates IV. is placed by his father Orodes upon the Parthian throne. viii. 8; he puts his brothers, father, and his son to death, ibid.

Phraortes, king of the Medes, succeeds his father Dejoces, ii. 79; he makes himself master of almost all Upper Asia, ibid.; he makes war against the Assyrians, ibid.; he is defeated, \$0; Nabuchodonosor puts him to death, ibid.

Phrataphernes, one of Alexander's generals. Provinces which felt

to him after that prince's death, v. 312.

Phrygia, province of Asia Minor, i. 24.

Phrynicus, one of the Athenian generals, opposes the recal of Aler-

biades, iii. 287; he is deprived of the command, 288.

Phryuon commands the army of the Athenians sent against Mitylene, is. 314; he accepts the challenge of Pittacus, and is killed, ibid. Phyllus, Lacedsemonian officer, is killed at the siege of Sparta by Pyrrhus, fighting valiantly, vi. 94.

Physicon.—See Ptolemy Evergetes, surnamed Physicon.

Phyto, general of the troops of Rhegium, defends that city against Dionysius, iv. 195; Dionysius, after having made him suffer great indignities, puts him to death, 196.

Pindar, Greek lyric poet, character of his works, iii. 163.

Piracus, port of Athens, iii. 81.

Piromis, name given to kings said by the Egyptian priests to have,

reigned in Egypt, i. 187.

Pisander, Athenian captain, induces the people of Athens to recal Alcibiades, iii. 287; the Athenians send him to treat with Alcibiades and Tisasphernes, ibid.; at his return he changes the form of the government, 289.

Pisander, Lacedaemonian, is appointed by Agesilaus his brother-

an-law to command the fleet in his stead, iv. 82; he is defeated

by Conon, near Cnidos, and killed in the battle, 40.

Pisistratus, Athenian, makes himself tyrant of Athens, ii. 299; lenity of his government, 300; his death, ibid.; his character, ibid.; library founded by him at Athens, ibid.

Piso (Calpurnius), consul, commands at the siege of Carthage be-

fore the arrival of Scipio, ii. 15.

Pisuthnes, governor of Lydia for Darius, revolts against that prince,

iii. 213; he is taken and put to death, 214.

Pithon, one of Alexander's captains, is made governor of Media by Antipater, v. 337; he causes Philotas to be put to death, and takes possession of his government, 395; he s driven out of Media by Peucestes, and obliged to retire to Seleucus, ibid.; Antigonus puts him to death, 370.

Pittacus of Mitylene, one of the seven sages of Greece, drives out the tyrant who oppressed his country, ii. 314; he commands the army against the Athenians, mid.; he challenges Phrynon their general, to single combat, and kills him, 315; the inhabitants of

tarily abdicates his authority at the expiration of ten years, and

Mitylene give him the sovereignty of their city, ibid.; he volunretires, ibid.; his death, ibid. Plague, contagious distemper, iii. 183; description of that disease,

Plataes, city of Bootia, ii. 253; the Plataeans acquire glory at the battle of Marathon, iii. 9; they refuse to submit to Xerxes 40; the Greeks decree the prize of valour to them after the defeat of Mardonius, 71; the Platseans institute an anniversary festival in honour of those who died in the battle, 73; siege of Plataca by the Thebans, 176; Plataea besieged and taken by the Lacedaemonians, 192; the Thebans demolish it entirely. 205; the Plataeans retire to Athens, 203; they induce Alexander to destroy Thebes, v. 85; that prince permits them to rebuild their city, 173.

Plato, philosopher of Athens. He retires to Megara to avoid the rage of the Athenians, iv. 104; Plato's travels into Sicily, where he appears for the first time at the court of Dionysius the Younger, 185; his intimacy and friendship with Dion, ibid.; Plato's second voyage into Sicily, 212; wonderful change occasioned by his presence at the court of Dionysius the Younger, 213; conspiracy of the courtiers to prevent its effects, ibid.; Plato quits the court. and returns into Greece, 216; adventure that happens to him at Olympia, ibid.; he returns to the court of Donysius the Younger, 218; Dionysius differs with him, 219; he permits him to return into Greece, 220; Plato's death, 342.

Plemmyrium, isle near Syracuse, iii. 250.

Plietarchus, son of Leonidas, king of Sparta, iii. 87. Plisthenes, son of Atreus, king of Mycense, ii. 259.

Plistonax, king of Lacedaemonia, takes pains to cause a treaty to be concluded between Athens and Sparts, iii. 223; his death, 502.

Plutarch of Eretria calls in the Athenians to the aid of Eubea. besieged by Philip, v. 40; his perfidy, 41; Phocion drives him out of Eretria, ibid.

Posile, Homan, gallery or porolt of paintings at Athens, where the Stoics used to assemble, iii. 15.

Poem, epic and dramatic, i. 70.

Poesy. Greek poets, ii. 305, &c.; emulation of the poets in dimuting the prizes of the Olympic games, i. 70; poets who invented and improved tragedy and comedy, 71, &c.

Polemarch, magistrate at Athens, employed both to administer ius-

tice and command armies, iii. 10.

Poliorectes, name given Demetrius, son of Antigonus, v. 372.

Polyaenos, senator of Syracuse, harangues the people upon the action of Andranadorus, after the death of Hieronymus, viii. 40. Polybidas. Lacedaemonian, is charged with the war against Olyn-

tirus, and takes that city, iv. 261. Polybius, Greek historian. His function at the funeral of Philopæmen, vii. 53; he is chosen ambassador to Ptolemy Epiphanes by the Achaeans, 60; he is elected general of the horse by the Achaeans, 157; he is deputed to the consul Marcius, to whom he presents the decree of the Achaeans, 159; he returns to Achaia, 160: he saves the Achaeans a considerable expense, 163; he is included in the number of the exiles, and carried to Rome, 210; his great friendship with the second Scipio Africanus, ibid.; return of Polybius into Achaia, 235; zeal of Polybius in defending Philopæmen's memory, 236; proof which he gives of his disinterestedness, ibid.; he establishes good order and tranquillity in his country, ibid.; he returns to Scipio at Rome, and accompanies him to the siege of Numantia, 287; after Scipio's death, he returns into his own country, where he ends his days, ibid.

Polybius, of Megalopolis, officer in the army of the Achaeans, vi. 263. Polyerates, tyrant of Samos, ii. 185; singular history of that tyrant,

186 ; his miserable end, 187.

Polycrates, first minister of Ptolemy Epiphanes, renders that prince great services, vii. 39.

Polydamus, famous athleta of antiquity, i. 54.

Polydectes, king of Sparts, and brother of Lycurgus, i. 101. Polydorus, brother of Jason, tyrant of Pherse, succeeds him, and is soon after killed by Polyphron, his other brother, iv. 290.

Polygamy. It was allowed in Egypt, i. 149.

Polygnotus, famous painter; generous action of his towards the Athenians, iii. 15.

Polyperchon, Syracusan, in concert with Leptines, kills Callippus,

Dion's murderer, iv. 237.

Polyphron is substituted for Jason, tyrant of Pherae, his brother, iv. 290: he kills Polydorus his other brother, and is soon after killed

himself by Alexander of Pherae, ibid.

Polysperchon, one of the generals of Alexander's army, reduces a country, called Bubacene, v. 227; he ridicules a Persian for prostrating himself before Alexander, 280; that prince causes him to be put in prison, and pardons him soon after, ibid.; Polysperchon takes the city of Ora, 238; he is appointed regent of the kingdom, and governor of Macedonia by Antipater, 340; he recals Olympias, 342; he endeavours to secure Greece to himself, ibid.; he is driven out of Macedonia by Cassander, 359; he causes Hercules, the son of Alexander, and his mother Barsina to be put to death, 381.

Polystratus. Macedonian soldier, carries drink to Darius at the point

of death, and receives his last words, v. 189.

Polyxenides, admiral of the fleet of Antiochus the Great, is deeated by Livius, and reduced to fly, vi. 356; he defeats Pausisfratus, who commanded the fleet of Rhodes, by a stratagem, 359; he is defeated by Emilius, and compelled to retire to Ephesus, vii. 1.

Polyxenus, brother-in-law of Dionysius, having deslared against that prince, flies to avoid falling into his hands, iv. 192.

Polyzelus, brother of Hiero L king of Syracuse, gives his brother umbrage, iii. 161; Theron, his son-in-law, takes his part, ibid.; peace is made by the mediation of the poet Simonides, ibid.

Pompeius (L.), Roman officer, commands a small body of troops during the war with Perseus, and retires to an eminence, where

he defends himself valiantly, vii. 155.

Pompey succeeds Lucullac in the war against Mithridates, viii. 119; his conduct upon arriving in his government, 120; he offers Mithridates peace, 121; he gaius several victories over that prince, 122, &c.; he marches into Armenia against Tigranes, who comes and surrenders himself to him, 123; he pursues Mithridates, and in his way subjects the Albanians and Iberians, 125; tired of following Mithridates, he comes to Syria, of which he takes possession, and puts an end to the empire of the Seleucidae, 127; he marches to Pontus, 128; he returns into Syria, 129; Pompey's expeditions into Arabia, 133; he takes Jerusalem, enters the temple, and even the Holy of Holies, vii. 332; after having reduced all the cities of Pontus, he returns to Rome, viii. 133; he receives the honour of a triumph, 134; after his defeat at Pharablia, he retires into Egypt, 144; he is killed, 145.

Pontus, kingdom of Ana Minor, i. 23; chronological abridgment of

the history of the kings of Pontus, 117.

Popilius (C.) is sent ambassador into Egypt, in order to put an end to the war there, vii. 98; he obliges Anticohus to quit Egypt, and leave the two Ptolemies, brothers, in quiet possession of it, 102; he is sent into Peloponnesus to publish the decree of the senate there in favour of the Greeks, 157.

Porphyry. Tyrian, a learned Pagan, declared enemy of Christianity

and the Holy Scriptures, vii. 126.

Porus, Indian king, refuses to submit to Alexander, v. 240; he is defeated and taken prisoner, 246; Alexander restores to him his dominions, ibid.

Posts. Invention of posts and couriers, il. 207.

Pothinus, Ptolemy's minister, dethrones Cleopatra, viii. 144; he advises the death of Pompey, ibid.; he endeavours to reader Caesar odious to the Egyptians, 147; he prevents the effect of Caesar's decree, and makes the Egyptians take arms against him, 148; Caesar causes him to be put to death, 150.

Potidaea, city of Macedonia, revolts against the Athenians, to whom it was tributary, iii. 146; it is besieged and taken by the Athenians. 147; Philip takes that city from them, v. 9.

Poverty. Love of poverty instituted at Sparta, iv. 116.

Prexaspes, confident of Cambyses, kills Smerdis by that prince's order, ii. 184; his base and monstrous flattery of Cambyses, 185; he promises the Magit to declare before the people Smerdis the Magian the true son of Cyrus, 189; he speaks to the people from the top of a tower, declares the contrary to them, throws himself down from the top of the tower, and is killed, 190.

Priapatius, son and successor of Arsaces II. king of the Parthians,

yii. 3**8**9,

Priene, city of Ionia, iii. 144.

Princes.—See Kings.

Procles. son of Aristodemus, reigns at Sparta with his brother Eu-

rysthenes, i. 100.

Proculeius, Roman officer, comes to Cleopatra in her retirement. and adv ses her to put herself into Caesar's hands, viii. 173; makes himself master of the person of that princess. 174; Caesar orders him to ask her what she desires of him, ibid.

Prodices, name given by the Lacedaemonians to the guardians of

the kings, i. 101.

Proctus, king of Argos, ii. 258.

Promachus, one of Alexander's officers, dies in a debauch with that

pr nce. v. 269.

Protagoras, brother of Nicocles, expels Evagoras II. from Salamis, and reigns in his stead, iv. 336; Ochus confirms the possession of the throne to him 339.

Protagoras of Abdera, sophist. Opinion of Protagoras concerning the Divinity, iii. 946; the Athenians expel him their city, and

cause his works to be burnt, ibid.

Protess, Macedonian. Alexander drinks his health in the bowl of Hercules, v. 284.

Proteus, king of Egypt, i. 181; he detains Helen and her riches. and restores her to Menelaus, 182, &c. Prothous, senator of Sparts, opposes the war against the Thebans,

but is disregarded, iv. 276. Protogenes, famous painter. Demetrius's regard for him during the

siege of Rhodes, vi. 14. Protomachus, one of the Athenian generals that gained the victory near the islands Arginusae, and were condemned at their return. iii. 305.

Providence. Discourse of Socrates upon Providence, iv. 79.

Proxenus, of Bœotia, commands a body of Grecian troops in the army of Cyrus the Younger, against his brother Artaxerxes, iii. 339; he is seized by treachery, and put to death, 356; character of Proxenus, ibid.

Prusias I. king of Bithynia, i. 116.

Prusias II.king of Bithyn a, surnamed the Hunter, declares for the Romans against Antiochus, vi. 360; he makes war against Eumenes, vii. 55; services done him by Hann bal during that war, ibid.; Prusias agrees to deliver him up to the Romans, ibid.; he endeavours to induce the Romans to grant Perseus a peace, 163; his abject flattery in the senate, 213; war of Prusias with Attalus, 216; the senate oblige him to lay down his arms, and to make Attalus satisfaction, 217; Prusias, intending to put his son Nicomedes to death, is killed by him. 218.

Prytanis, name of the chief magistrate of Corinth, fi. 262.

Psammenitus, king of Egypt, is conquered by Cambyses, who uses him with elemency, i. 200; he endeavours to reascend the throne,

and is put to death, ibid.

Psammeticus, one of the twelve kings who reigned at the same time in Egypt, is banished into the fens and on what occasion. i. 188; he defeats the other eleven kings, and remains sole monarch of Egypt, ibid.; he makes war against the king of Assyria, 189; he besieges Azotus, and takes it after a siege of twenty-nine years, ibid.; he prevents the Seythians from invading Egypt, 190; his method of knowing whether the Egyptians were the most ancient people of the earth, ibid.

Panmmis, king of Egypt, i. 193.

Ptolemais, daughter of Ptolemy Soter, is married to Demetrius Poliorcetes, vi. 26.

Ptolemy, son of Amyntas II, disputes the crown with Perdiccas, iv. 291; Pelopidas excludes him from the throne, ibid.

Ptolemy, son of Seleucus, is killed at the battle of Issus, v. 118.

Ptolemy L son of Lagus, one of Alexander's generals, takes several cities of India, v. 237; he is dangerously wounded at the siege of a city of India, 260; he is cured soon after, 261; provinces which fall to him after the death of Alexander, 312; he causes the body of Alexander to be carried to Alexandria, 530; he enters into a league with Antipater, Craterus, and Antigonus, against Perdices and Eumenes, 332; he makes himself master of Syria, Phonicia, and Judaea, 339; he takes Jerusalem, ibid.; he forms a league with Seleucus,, Cassander, and Lysimachus, against Antigonus, 371; he seizes the island of Cyprus, 374; he defeats Demetrius in battle, 375; and makes himself master of Tyre, ibid.; defeat of one of his generals by Demetrius, 376; different expeditions of Ptolemy against Antigonus, 582; Ptolemy is defested by Demetrius, who takes from him the isle of Cyprus, 393,&c.

Ptolemy assumes the title of king, v. 394; he sends aid to the Rhodiana besieged by Demetrius, vi. 7; the Rhodians, in gratitude, give him the title of Soter, 14; Ptolemy allies himself with Seleucus, Cassander, and Lysimachus, against Antigonus and Demetrius, 20; those four princes divide the empire of Alexander amongst them, 22; Ptolemy retakes the island of Cyprus from Demetrius, 30; he renews the league with Lysmachus and Seleucus against Demetrius, 32; he abdicates the throne to his son Ptolemy Philadelphus, 39; death of Ptolemy Soter, 44; praise of that prince, ibid.; famous library which he caused to be erected at

Alexandria, 41.

Ptolemy II, surnamed Philadelphus, is placed by his father Ptolemy Soter upon the throne of Egypt, vi. 39; magnificent solemnity at his coronation, 45, &c.; the commencement of his reign, 54; his resentment against Demetrius Phalereus, ibid.; he causes the Holy Scriptures to be translated into Greek, to adorn his library, 67; he cultivates the amity of the Romans, 100; his liberality to the Roman ambassadors, ibid.; Ptolemy sends aid to the Athenians besieged by Antigonus, 102; revolt of Magas against Ptolemy, 103; the latter quells a conspiracy against his person, ibid.; works of Ptolemy of advantage to commerce, 106; he comes to an accommodation with Magas, 107; war between Ptolemy and Antochus, 108; peace between those princes. 109; death of Ptolemy Philadelphus, 113; character and qualities of that prince, 114; his taste for arts and sciences, 112; his application to make commerce flourish in his dominions, 106.

Ptolemy III. surnamed Evergetes, succeeds his father Ptolemy Philadelphus, 114; he avenges the death of his sister Berenice, puts Laodice to death, and seizes part of Asia, 118; in returning from that expedition he goes to Jerusalem, and offers sacrifices there to the Gop of Israel, 120; league of Antiochus Hierax and Seleucus Callinicus against Ptolemy, 121; the latter comes to an

accommodation with Seleucus, 122; he causes Antiochus to be seized, and imprisons him, 124; he augments the library of Atexandria, ibid.; he gives Joseph, the nephew of Onlas, the farm of the revenues of the provinces of Coologria, Phænicia, Judaea. and Samaria, 127; arrival of Cleomenes at the court of Egypt. 181; death of Ptolemy Evergetes, ibid.; Ptolemy's liberality to the Rhodians, 182.

Ptolemy IV. surnamed Philopator, ascends the throne of Egypt after the death of Ptolemy Evergetes, 182, 185; injustice and cruelty of that prince to Cleomenes, 208; Antiochus the Great undertakes to recover Colosyria from Ptolemy, 188; short trace between those two princes, 196; Ptolemy gains a great vetory over Antiochus at Raphia, 199; he comes to Jerusalem, ibid.; rage and revenge of Ptolemy against the Jews, because they refuse to let him enter into the sanctuary, 200; he grants Antiochus peace. 201; the Egyptians revolt against Philopator, 202; that prince gives himself up to all manner of excesses, ibid.; he puts Arsinne, his wife and sister, to death, 203; he dies worn out

with debauches, 272. Ptolemy V. called Epiphanes, at the age of five years, ascends the throne of Egypt, after the death of Ptolemy Philopator, 273; Antiochus the Great and Philip enter into a league to invade his dominions, 277; Ptolemy is put under the guardianship of the Romans, 280; Ar stomenes, the young king's guardian for the Romans, takes Palestine and Coelosyria from Antiochus, 292; Antiochus retakes those provinces, 293; Scopas's conspiracy against Ptolemy frustrated by Aristomenes, 320; Ptolemy is declared of age, ibid.; he marries Cleopatra daughter of Antiochus. 334: he makes an alliance with the Achaeans, vii. 37; he treats Hyrcanus, the son of Joseph. with great marks of favour and friendship, 38, &c.; he takes a disgust to Aristomenes, and puts him to death, he abandons himself to all sorts of excesses, ibid.; the Egyptians form several conspiraces against him, 39; Ptolemy chooses Polycrates for his prime minister, ibid.; with that minister's assistance he gets the better of the rebels ibid.; he renews the alliance with the Achaeans, ibid.; he forms the design of attacking Seleucus, 61; the principal persons of his court poison him, ibid.

Ptolemy VI. called Philometor, at six years old succeeds his father Ptolemy Epiphanes, vii. 61; ground of the war between Ptolemy and Antiochus Epiphanes, 91; coronation of Ptolemy, ibid.; he is defeated by Antiochus, 93; he loses a second battle against Antiochus, and is taken prisoner, 95; the Alexandrians elect his brother Ptolemy Evergetes IL surnamed also Physeon, in his place, 96 : Antiochus replaces Philometor in appearance upon the throne, 99; the two brothers unite and reign jointly, ibid.; the Romans prevent Antiochus from disturbing them, 101; Philometor is dethroned by his brother Physicon, 254; he goes to Rome to implore the senate's elemency, ibid.; the Romans divide the kingdom of Egypt between the two brothers, 255; new differences arise between Philometor and Physeon, ibid.; Philometor refuses to evacuate the sland of Cyprus, 256; he gains a victory over Physoon, and takes him prisoner 257; he pardons him and restores him his dominions, 258; he marries his daughter Cibopatra to Alexander Bala, 265; he permits Onias to build a temple for the Jews in Egypt, fild.; he marches to the aid of Alexander his son-in-law, attacked by Demetrus, 267; Apellonius's plot against Ptolemy, ibid.; upon the refusal of Alexander to deliver up that traitor, Philometor takes his daughter from him, gives her to Demetrius, and aids him in ascending his father's throne, ibid.

Ptolemy VII. called Evergetes II. and Physicon, son of Ptolemy Epiphanes, is placed by the Alexandrians upon the throne of Egypt in his eldest brother's stead. vii. 96; the two brothers unite and reign jointly, 99; they prepare to defend themselves against the attacks of Antiochus, 100; the Romans oblige that prince to leave those two princes in tranquillity, 101; Physicon dethrones Philometor, 254; the Romans divide the kingdom between the two brothers, 255; Physicon dissatisfied with the part given to him, goes to Rome, and demands to be put in possession of the island of Cyprus, bid.; the Romans adjudge it to him, 256; the people of Cyrenaica oppose Physion's entrance into their country, 257; that prince re-establishes himself in that country, and gives occasion to attempts against his life by his bad conduct, ibid.; he makes a second voyage to Rome, and carries his complaints thither against his brother, ibid.; he undertakes to make himself master of the island of Cyprus, ibid.; Philometor defeats and takes him prisoner, and afterwards generously restores him his dominions, ibid.

Physeon marries Cleopatra, the widow of Philometor, ascends the throne of Egypt, and puts his brother's son to death, vii. 268; Physeon's excess of folly and debauchery, 278; Scipio Africanus the Younger goes to that prince's court, 279; Physeon puts away Cleopatra, and marries her daughter. by Philometor, named also Cleopatra, 289; horrible cruelties which he commits in Egypt, bidd.; a general revolt compels him to quit that kingdom, ibid.; new eruelties of Physeon, 290; he returns into Egypt, and reascends the throne, 291; he supports the impostor Alexander Zebina, and lends him an army to place him upon the throne of Syria, ibid.; he gives his daughter Tryphena in marriage to Gry-

pus, 294; Physcon's death, 295.

Ptolemy VIII. called Lathyrus, succeeds i...'s father Fhyscon, vii. 295; Cleopatra, his mother, obliges him to repudiate his eldest aster, and marry Selene his youngest, ibid.; Lathyrus aids Anticohus the Cyzicenian against John Hyreanus. 298; Cleopatra takes her daughter Selene from Lathyrus, and obliges him to quit Egypt, and content himself with the kingdom of Cyprus, 301; Lathyrus sends an army to besiege Ptolemais, and marches in person against Alexander king of the Jews, over whom he gains a great victory, ibid.; barbarous action of Lathyrus after the battle, 302; he raises the siege of Ptolemais, 303; he makes an ineffectual attempt against Egypt, ibid.; he is recalled by the Alexandrians, and replaced upon the throne of Egypt, 307; a rebellion rises up against him in Egypt, 308; Lathyrus destroys Thebes whither the rebels had retired, ibid.; he dies soon after, ibid.

Ptolemy IX. king of Egypt.—See Alexander 1. son of Physcon.
Ptolemy X. son of Alexander I. king of Egypt.—See Alexander II.
Ptolemy XI. surnamed Auletes, is placed by the Alexandrians upon
the throne of Egypt, in the room of Alexander II., vii. 314; he
causes himself to be declared the friend and ally of the Roman

people, by the credit of Caesar and Pompey, viii. 136; he oppresses his subjects in consequence with taxations, ibid.; he is dethroned, ibid.; the Alexandrians substitute his daughter Berenice in his place, ibid.; he goes to Rome, and with money gains the suffrages of the principal persons of the commonwealth for his re-establishment, 137; he causes most of the ambassadors, sent by the Egyptians to Rome to justify their revolt, to be murdered, 138; an oracle of the Sybil is set up against him, ibid.; Gabinius reinstates him upon the throne, 142; Auletes puts his daughter Berenice to death, 143; his ingratitude and perfidy to Rabirius, ibid.; death of Auletes, 144.

Ptolemy XIL son of Ptolemy Auletes, reigns after his father with his sister Cleopatra, viii. 144; he expels Cleopatra, ibid.; he causes Pompey to be assassinated by the advice of Theodotus, 145; Caesar makes himself judge between Ptolemy and Cleopatra, 146; he secures the person of Ptolemy, 148; he releases him, 152; Ptolemy renews the war against Caesar, ibid.; he is defeated,

and drowned in the Nile endeavouring to escape, 153.

Ptolemy I. king of Cyprus, brother of Ptolemy Auletes, is deposed by the Romans, who confiscate his treasures, vii. 319; he poisons

himself, ibid.

Ptolemy II. son of Ptolemy Auletes, is made king of Cyprus by Caesar, viii. 148; Caesar gives him the crown of Egypt jointly with Cleopatra, 153; death of Ptolemy, poisoned by that princess, 154.

Ptolemy, son of Antony and Cleopatra, is proclaimed king of Syria

by Antony, 76.

Ptolemy Apion, natural son of Physicon, is made king of Cyrenaica by his father, vii. 295; he leaves his kingdom to the Romans at

bis death, 305,

Ptolemy Ceraunus, or the Thunderer, son of Ptolemy Soter, quits the court and retires first to Lysimachus, and afterwards to Seleucus, vi. 40; he engages the latter in a war with Lysimachus, 56; he assassinates Seleucus and possesses himself of his dominions, 59; he marries his sister Arsinoe, widow of Lysimachus, and causes her two children by that prince to be murdered, 60; he banishes her into Samothracia, 61; he is soon after punished for those parricides by the Gauls, who kill him in a battle, 62.

Ptolemy Macron, governor of the island of Cyprus under Ptolemy Philometor, revolts against that prince, enters into the service of Antiochus Epiphanes, and gives him possession of the island of Cyprus, vii. 94; Antiochus gives him a share in his confidence, and the governent of Cœlosyris and Palestine, ibid.; he marches against the Jews, and is defeated by Judas Maccabaeus, 113; he becomes a friend to the Jews, 251; Antiochus Eupator deprives him of his government, ibid.; Ptolemy, through despair, poisons himself, ibid.

Ptolemy, son of Pyrrhus, is killed in a battle against the Lacedse-

monians, vi. 96.

Ftolemy one of the principal officers of Philip, unites with Apelles in his conspiracy against that prince, vi. 221; Philip causes him to be put to death, 228.

Pul, king of the Assyrians, who repents upon the preaching of Jo-

nah, ii. 57.

Pulcher (P. Claudius), consul, is beaten at sea by Adherbal the Carthagiuian general, i. 270.

Punic. Origin and signification of that word, i. 201; Punic wars,

256, 283, ii. 6.

Pydna, city of Macedonia, is subjected by Philip, v. 9; famous victory gained by Paulus Æmilius over Perseus, near that city, vii. 184.

Pylus, a small city of Messenia, taken by the Athenians during the

Peloponnesian war, iii. 205.

Pyramid. Description of the Pyramids of Egypt, i. 129; judgment to be formed of those famous structures, 130.

Pyrrhias, general of the Ætolians, is twice beaten by Philip, vi. 241. Pyrrhus, son of Eacides king of Epirus, flies from the fury of the rebels, vi. 27; he is re-established upon the throne of Epirus by Glaucias king of Illyrium, ibid.; the Molossians revolt against him, and plunder all his riches, 28; he retires to Demetrius, son of Antigonus, ibid.; he distinguishes himself at the battle of Ipsus, ibid.; he goes to Egypt as an hostage for Demetrius, ibid.; he marries Antigone, daughter of Berenice, ibid ; Ptolemy gives him a fleet and money, of which he makes use for repossessing himself of his dominions, ibid.; Pyrrhus takes Macedonia from Demetrius, and is declared king of it, 33; he divides that kingdom with Lysimachus, 35; he is soon obliged to quit it, 36; the Tarentines call in Pyrrhus to their aid against the Romans, 70; that prince goes to Italy, 72; he defeats the consul Levinus, 75; he causes proposals of peace to be made to the Romans, 76; conversation of Pyrrhus with Fabricius, 78, &c.; Pyrrhus gains a second advantage over the Romans, 84; expeditions of Pyrrhus in Sicily, 85; he returns into Italy, 88; he plunders the temple of Proserpine, in the country of the Locrians, ibid.; he is defeated by the Romans, 89; he returns into Epirus, 90; he throws himself into Macedonia, and makes himself master of it for a time, after having defeated Antigonus, ibid.; expedition of Pyr-. rhus into Peloponnestis, 92; he besieges Sparta ineffectually, ibid., &c.; he is killed at the siege of Argos, 98; good and bad qualities of Pyrrhus, ibid., &c.

Pythagoras a Lacedaemonian, commands part of the fleet of Cyrus the Younger, in the expedition of that prince against his bro-

ther Artaxerxes, iii. 339.

Pythagoras, son of Exagoras, defends the city of Salamis, besieged

by Artaxerxes, during his father's absence, iv. 53.

Pythagoras, philosopher, iii. 168; he goes to Italy and settles at Crotona, where he opens a school of philosophy, ibid.; noviciate of silence which he makes his disciples observe, ibid.

Pytharchus of Cyzicum gains the favour of Cyrus, who gives him

the revenues of seven cities for a pension, ii. 211.

Pytheas, magistrate of the Bootians, induces them to unite their forces with those of the Achaeans against the Romans, vii. 230: Metellus puts him to death, 231.

Pytheas, famous astronomer and geographer, vii. 222. Pythia, name of the priestess of Apollo at Delphi, i. 40.

Pythian, celebrated games of Greece, i. 47.

Pythias, friend of Damon. Trial to which their friendship was put,

Pythius, Lydian prince, generous offer which he makes Xerxes of

his riches, iii. 50; means which the princess his wife uses to make him sensible of the injustice and absurdity of his conduct. SI:

cruelty which Pythius experiences from Xerxes, ibid.

Pythodorus, sent by the Athenians to the aid of the Leontines, is banished for not having undertaken the conquest of Sicily, iii. 232. Python of Byzantium, famous rhetorician, is deputed by Philip to the Thehans to incline them to peace, v. 54.

QUOIT.—See Discus.

RABIRIUS POSTHUMUS, Roman knight, goes to Ptolemy Auletes, in order to be paid the sums he had lent that prince at Rome. viii. 143; perfidy of Ptolemy towards him, ibid.; Rabirius is accused at Rome of having assisted Ptolemy in corrupting the senute, ibid.; Cicero undertakes his defence, ibid.

Race.—See Course.

Ragau, name of the plain where Nabuchodonosor conquered Phra-

ortes, ii. 80.

Rameses Miamun, king of Egypt, i. 175; he makes the Israelites suffer infinite hardships, ibid.

Rammius, citizen of Brundusium, is ordered by Persens to poison Eumenes, v.i. 136; he goes to Valerius at Chalcis, discovers the

whole to him, and follows him to Rome ibid.

Raphia, city of Palestine, near which Antiochus the Great was

defeated by Ptolemy Philopator, vi. 198.

Regillus (L. Æmilius) is charged with the command of the Roman fleet in the room of Livius, v. 357; he gains a complete victory over Polyxenides, Antiochus's admiral, vii. 1: he receives

the honour of a triumph, 19.

Regulus (M. Attilius), consul, gains a great victory over the Carthaginians with his fleet, i. 260; he goes to Africa, ibid.; the Romans continue him in the command as proconsul, ibid.; he defeats the Carthaginians and seizes Tuns. 261; he suffers himself to be dazzled by his glorious successes, 262; he is defeated and taken prisoner by the Carthaginians, 264; the Carthaginians send him to Rome to propose the exchange of prisoners, 267; at his return they put him to a cruel death, 268.

Religion. Origin and source of the religion of the ancients, i. 24.

Reomithras, one of the revolted chiefs against Artaxerxes Mnemon, delivers up the principal rebels to that prince, to make his own peace, and keeps the money which he had brought from Egypt for the confederacy, iv. 318.

Resurrection of the body. Confused notion which the ancients had

of the resurrection of the body, iii. 307.

Retreat of the ten thousand Greeks after the battle of Cunaxa, iv. 1, &c.

Rhadamanthus, brother of Minos, is appointed by that prince to administer justice in his capital city, iv. 123.

Rhampsinitus, king of Egypt, i. 182.

Rhegium, city of Sicily, forms a league against Dionyaius, iv. 181; it makes peace with that tyrant, ibid.; its refusal to give him a wife, and the insolent answer with which that refusal is attended. 132; Dionysius besieges it out of revenge, 195; miserable fate of that city, ibid.; a Roman legion, by the aid of the Mamertines, comes and settles there after having expelled the inhabitants, i. 256; the Romans re-establish the inhabitants, ibid.

Rhisiases. Achaean, by menaces obliges his son Memnon, who was chief magistrate, not to oppose the treaty with the Romans, vi. 289. Rhodes, island and city of Asia Minor, i. 23; Rhodes takes up arms against Athens, iv. 325; it is declared free, 330; it is subjected by Mausolus, king of Caria, 363; the Rhodians undertake to dethrone Artemisia, widow of that prince, 534; that princess takes their city, 335; the death of Artemisia re-establishes their liberty, 336; the Rhodians refuse to aid Antigonus against Ptolemy, vi. 2; Demetrius besieges their city, ibid., &c.; he raises the siege a year after by a peace very honourable for the Rhodians, 13; he makes them a present of all the machines of war which he had employed in that siege, 14; the Rhodians erect the famous Colossus, with the money raised by the sale of those machines, ibid.; their impious flattery of Ptolemy to express their gratitude for the aid he had given them during that siege, ibid.; great earthquake at Rhodes, 182; emulation of the neighbouring princes in consoling that afflicted city, ibid.; destruction of the famous Colossus, ibid.; war between the Rhodians and Byzautines, and the cause of it, 193; peace is restored between the two people, 194; war between the Rhodians and Philip, 275; they defeat Hannibal at sea, 359; dispute between the Rhodians and Eumenes before the Romans, concerning the Grecian cities of Asia, vii. 12; the Rhodians signalize their zeal for Rome in the war with Perseus, 142; they send ambassadors to Rome, and to the Roman army in Macedonia, who speak there in favour of Perseus with extraordinary insolence, 168; they send deputies to Rome, who endeavour to appease the anger of the senate, 203; after long and warm solicitations, they succeed in being admitted

into the alliance of the Roman people, 207.

Rhodoguna, daughter of Mithridates king of the Parthians, is mar-

ried to Demetrius, king of Syria, 274,

Rhone, river. Passage of the Rhone by Hannibal, i. 291.

Richelieu (Cardinal) composed dramatic pieces, and piqued himself

upon excelling in that study, iv. 198.

Romans. First treaty between the Romans and Carthaginians, i. 281; second treaty between the Romans and Carthaginians, 242; war between the Romans and Pyrrhus, vi.73; they are defeated in two battles by that prince, 84; they gain a great victory over Pyrrhus, and oblige him to quit Italy, 89; they punish their citizens who had settled at Rhegium, i. 256; they send ambassadors to Ptolemy Philadelphus, and make an alliance with that prince, vi. 100; they aid the Mamertines against the Carthaginians, i. 257; they form the design of fitting out a fleet for the first time, 258; they beat the Carthaginians, first near the coast of Myle, and afterwards near Ecnomus, 260; they pass over into Africa, ibid.; they are at first victorious, and afterwards defeated, 261; they defeat the Carthaginian fleet in sight of Sicily, 268; they go to Sicity, and form the siege of Lilybaeum, ibid.; they are defeated at sea, 270; they gain a great victory over the Carthaginians, to whom they grant peace, 27 2

The Romans take Sardinia f rom the Carthaginians, i. 282; they

drive Tenta out of Illyrium, vi. 141; they send a soleum embassy into Greeco to notify their treaty with the Illyrium, ibid.; the Corinthians admit them to the Isthmian games, and the Athenians grant them the freedom of their city, ibid.; the Romans drive Bemetrius of Pharos out of Illyrium, 211; they send ambassadors to demand him of Philip, who refuses to deliver him up, ibid.; they declare war against the Carthaginians, i. 389; they are defeated near the Ticinus. 300; near Trebis, 301; and the lake of Thrasymene, 306; they make several conquests in Spain, they loose a great battle near Cannae, 311; Hannital besieges Rome, 3.0; the Romans are defeated in Spain, 321; they gain a great battle over Asdrubal, 323; they go over into Africa, 325; they defeat the Carthaginians near Zama, oblige them to demand

peace, and grant it them, 829.

The Romans send deputies to Ptolemy and Cleopatra to renew their ancient alliance with Egypt, vi. 202; they gain an advantage over Philip at Apollonia, 234; they break with Hieronymus, viii. 38; upon the news of that prince's death they send Marcellus into Sicily, 39; that general takes Syraouse, 57; alliance of the Romans with the Ætoliaus, vi. 238; the Romans send Sulpitius to the aid of the Ætolians against Philip, 240; various expeditions of that practor in Macedonia, 241; general peace between the Romans and Philip, in which the allies on both sides are ineluded, 268; the Romans accept the guardianship of Ptolemy Epiphanes, 279; they declare war against Philip, 282; they defeat that prince in a battle, 287; they employ their influence with Antiochus to induce him not to make war against Attalus, 291; expeditions of the Romans in Phoois, 295; they make a treaty with Nabis, 803; they gain a famous victory over Philip near Sectors and Cynosecphale, 308; they grant that prince peace, 312; they reinstate Greece in its ancient liberty, 314.

The Romans send an embassy to Antiochus, vi. 318; it tends only to dispose both sides to an open rupture, 319; they make war against Nabis. 322; they oblige him to demand peace, and grant it to him, 327; every preparation is made for a war between the Romans and Antiochus, 33t; mutual embassies on both sides without effect, ibid.; the Romans send troops against Nabis, who had broken the treaty, 337; they declare war against Antiochus, 348; they gain an advantage over that prince at Thermopylae, 351; they defeat Polyxenides, Antiochus's admiral, on two occasions, 356, vii. 1; they go to Asia, and gain a great victory over Antiochus near Magnesia, 10; they grant him peace, 11; they reduce the Ætolians, and grant them peace. 24; they subject the Gauls of Asia, 28, &c.; complaints against Philip carried to Rome, 41; the Romans send commissaries to examine into those complaints, and to take cognizance of the ill treatment of Sparta by the Achaeans, ibid.; new complaints carried to Rome against Philip, 61; the Romans send back his son Demetrius with ambassadors, 62.

The Romans send ambassadors into Macedonia, to have an eye upon the conduct of Perseus, vii. 130; they break with that prince, 137; war is declared in form, 143; the Romans are worsted near the river Peneus, 150; the senate makes a wise decree to put a stop to the avarice of the generals and magistrates who maressed the allies, 156; the Romans penetrate into Macedonia.

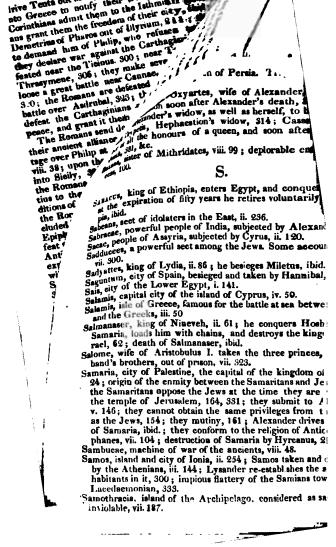
mia, 159, &c.; they conquer Gentius, king of Illyrium, 175; they gain a great victory over Perseus near the city of Pydna, 184; that prince is taken with his children, 189; decree of the senate, which grants liberty to the Macedon and allyrians, 192; the Romans sublige Antiochus Epiphanes to quit Egypt, and to leave the two reigning brothers in peace, 102; their cruel treatment of the Etokans, 907; all in general who had favoured Perseus are cited to Rome, to answer for their conduct there, 208; a thousand Achaeans carried thither, 210; the senate banishes them into several towns of Italy, 211; after seventeen years of banishment, they are sent back into their own country, 212; they refuse Eumenes entrance into Rome, 214; the Romans divide the kingdom of Egypt between Philometor and Physcon, 255; one of their ambassadors is killed in Syria, 258.

The Romans declare the Jews their friends and allies, vii. 261 : they acknowledge Demetrius king of Syria, ibid.; they conquer the Ligarians, and give their territory to the people of Marseilles, 220; they defeat Andriscus, and two more adventurers, who had prosessed themselves of Macedonia, and reduce that kingdom into a Roman province, 226; they declare war against the Carthagimians, ii. 9; they order them to abandon Carthage, 11; they besiege that city, and demolish it entirely, 14, &c.; decree of the senate for separating several cities from the Achaean league, vil. 228; troubles in Achaia, ibid.; the Romans defeat the Achaeans, and take Thebes, 230; they gain another victory over the Achaeans, take Corinth, and burn it, 232; they reduce Greece into a Ruman province, 233; they renew the treaties made with the Jews, 273; they inherit the riches and dominions of Attalus, king of Pergamus, 282; they reduce Aristonicus, who had possessed himself of them, 283; Ptolemy Apion, king of Cyrenaica, and Nicomedes, king of Bithynia, leave the Romans their dominions at their deaths, 305, 309; the Romans reduce those kingdoms into Roman provinces, ibid.

The Romans re-establish the kings of Cappadocia and Bithynis, expelled by Mithridates, viii. 71: first war of the Romans against Mithridates, 74; massacre of all the Romans and Italians in Asia Minor, 75; the Romans gain three great battles against the generals of Mithridates, 80, 84; they grant that prince peace, 87; second war of the Romans with Mithridates, 90; they are defeated by that prince in a battle, 91; they gain a great victory over him, and compel him to retire into Armenia to Tigranes, his sonin-law, 98; they declare war against Tigranes, and defeat him in a battle, 104; second victory of the Romans over the united forces of Mithridates and Tigranes, 108; they again gain several victories over Mithridates, who had recovered his dominions, 122; they subject Tigranes, king of Armenia, 124; they drive Auticabus Asiatious out of Syria, and reduce that kingdom into a Ro-

man province, 127.

The Romans by the will of Alexander, king of Egypt, are declared heirs of his dominions, viii. 135; end of the war with Mithridates, 129; the Romans drive Ptolemy out of Cyprus, and confiscate his treasures, viii. 319; they invade Parthia, and are defeated, 343, &c.; they declare Ptolemy Auletes their friend and ally, viii. 136; they reduce Egypt into a Roman province, 177;



INDEX.

lrive Tents out of Illyriam, vi. 141; they nto Greece to notify their treety with the filly Corinthians admit them to the Isthmian

gets that

had

al upon the Tigris, built by Seleucus Nicator.

ra of the Seleucidae, v. 377; end of the e in Asia, viii. 127.

t the head of all the cavalry of the aloder, v. 312; he is settled by Antipavion, 387; he joins Antigonus and

a the scapes from Babylon and the scapes from Babylon and the scape with Ptolemy, Lyain of Sarsons, ibid gonus, 371; he makes himof Assyria, ii. 58; his etc. the title of king, 394;

of Saraous, 1000, west the manual of Syria, ib.d.; he manual of Syria, ib.d at dentations, i. 226.

at head, initians, i. 226.

at head, pairy of Lydia, subjected by Cyrus, interest, and in a part of Lydia and the Athenians, 35, in econfederates, and victorious princes, and son at name given to the governors of provinces them, 22;

ha. ii. 202.

ha. ii. 204.

e ancient Theba.s of Egypt, 1. 220.

Pl, and one general of Autony's army in Libya, declares for Company and Damage part of ret Ly-\$9. \$\delta\$, Pompey's lieutenant, reduces Syria and Damascus, \(\frac{\partial}{\text{in}} \) \(\text{less} \) the Romans to Jugurths. II his

36. a, Pompey's licutenant, required the Romans to Jugurtha, it and the best of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the best of the best of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the best of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the best of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the best of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, it as the least of the Romans to Jugurtha, Some of or Stage, part of the theatre of the ancients, i. 87.

Some of or Stage, part of the theatre of the ancients, i. 87.

Bedes, king of Illyrium, exercises a kind of piracy at the contact of the c

Mileta 480 of all his neighbours, vi. 140, he joins the Achaeans against by Hanni Etolians, 211; he makes an alliance with the Romans, 239. loes,-See Arts.

o (Publius) marches into Spain against Hannibal, i. 293; he sea bent ses the Po, and is defeated near the Ticinus, 300; he is sent to Spain, and joins his brother Cn. Scipio there, 311; they make en Hr great progress there, 319; they divide their troops, 321; Publicketus is killed in a battle, 322.

pio (Cneus) is sent by his brother into Spain to make head against Astrubal, i. 294; the two brothers join each other, and have great

success, 311; Cneus is killed in a battle, 322.

he pipe (P. Cornel us), surnamed Africanus, makes himself master of wh all Spain, i. 325; he is elected consul, and goes ever into Africa. ibid.; he has an interview with Hannibal, and gains a great victory over that general, 828, &c. ; he grants the Carthag nians peace, 530, conversation between Scipio and Hannibal at Ephesus, 339; Scipio serves as lieutenant to his brother L. Cornelius Scipio in the war with Antiochus, vii. 357; he rejects the offers of Antiochus, 4; Scipio's death, i. 344.

Scipio (L. Cornelius), surnamed Asiaticus, is charged with the war against Antiochus, vi. 357; he goes to Asia, vii. 3; he gains a famous victory over Autiochus, near Magnesia, 8; he receives the

honour of a triumph, 19.

Scipio (Nasica), son-in-law of Scipio Africanus, is charged wi important expedition by Paulus Æmilius, which he ex

Cappadocia is also reduced into a Roman province, 18; reflecting upon the conduct of the Romans towards the states of Greece and the kings both of Europe and Asia, vii. 19; difference between the Romans and the Greeks, 240; Roman haughtines, 101; setting out of the consul and army, 144; difference of tasks of the Romans and Greeks in respect to shows, i. 66.

Rosaces, governor of Lydia and Ionia, commands a detachment of Ochus's army in that prince's expedition against Egypt, iv. 340.

Rosaces, Persian lord, gives proofs of his valour at the battle of the Granicus, v. 96.

Roxana, sister of Statira, queen of Persia. Tragical history of that princess, i.i. 24.

Roxana, daughter of Oxyartes, wife of Alexander, v. 227; she is delivered of a son soon after Alexander's death, \$12; she causes Statira, Alexander's widow, as well as herself, to be put to death with Drypetis, Hephaestion's widow, \$14; Cassander deprives her of all the honours of a queen, and soon after puts her to

death, 381, &c.

Boxana, sister of Mithridates, viii. 99; deplorable end of that prin-

oess, 100.

S

SABACUS, king of Ethiopia, enters Egypt, and conquers it, i. 185; at the expiration of fifty years he retires voluntarily into Ethiopia, ibid.

Sabeans, sect of idolaters in the East, ii. 236.

Sabracae, powerful people of India, subjected by Alexander, v. 260. Sacae, people of Assyria, subjected by Cyrus, ii. 120.

Sadducees, a powerful sect among the Jews. Some account of them, vii. 300.

Sadyattes, king of Lydia, ii. 86; he besieges Miletus, ibid.

Saguntum, city of Spain, besieged and taken by Hanaibal, i. 288. Sais, city of the Lower Egypt, i. 141.

Salamis, capital city of the island of Cyprus, iv. 50.

Salamis, isle of Greece, famous for the battle at sea between Xerzes and the Greeks, iii. 50

Salmanaser, king of Nineveh, ii. 61; he conquers Hoshea king of Samaria, loads him with chains, and destroys the kingdom of Israel, 62; death of Salmanaser, ibid.

Salome, wife of Aristobulus I. takes the three princes, her hus-

band's brothers, out of prison, vii. S23.

Samaria, city of Palestine, the capital of the kingdom of Iarael, i. 24; origin of the enmity between the Samaritans and Jews, ii. 65; the Samaritans oppose the Jews at the time they are rebuilding the temple of Jerusalem, 164, 331; they submit to Alexander, v. 146; they cannot obtain the same privileges from that prince as the Jews, 154; they mutiny, 161; Alexander drives them out of Samaria, ibid.; they conform to the religion of Antiochus Epiphanes, vii. 104; destruction of Samaria by Hyrcanus, 298.

Sambucae, machine of war of the ancients, viii. 48.

Samos, island and city of Ionia, ii. 254; Samos taken and destroyed by the Athenians, iii. 144; Lysander re-establishes the ancient inhabitants in it, 300; impious flattery of the Samians towards that Lacedaemonian, 333.

Samothracia, island of the Archipelago, considered as sacred and

nviolable, vii. 187.

androcotta, Indian, possesses himself of all the provinces of India erest which Alexander had conquered, vi. 17; Seleucus undertakes to drive him out of them, 18; those two princes come to an accommodation, ibid.

Bangala, city of Iadia, taken and entirely demolished by Alexander,

v. 248.

Rhy V. 245. ii Baoeduchin, king of Babylon.—See Nabuchodonosor I.

Sappho of Mitylene, surnamed the tenth Muse, ii. S12.

Saracus, king of Assyria, i. 66; revolt of Nabopolassar against that prince, ibid.; death of Saracus, ibid.

Sardanapalus, king of Assyria, ii. 58; his effeminacy, ibid.; his death, 59. Sardmia, island of Europe in the Mediterranean, subjected by the Carthaginians, i. 226.

Sardis, a city of Lydia, subjected by Cyrus, ii. 136; it is taken and

burnt by Aristagoras and the Athenians, 357.

Satrapae, name given to the governors of provinces amongst the Persians, ii. 202.

Saturn Pagan divinity, i. 904.

Satyr, sort of poem, i. 71.

Said, the ancient Thebas of Egypt, i. 126.

Scamma, name given to the place where the athletae combated. i. 57.

Scarpus, general of Antony's army in Libya, declares for Caesar, viii. 169.

Scaurus, Pompey's lieutenant, reduces Syria and Damascus, viii. 126. Scaurus (Æmilius) is deputed by the Romans to Jugurtha, ii. 36; he suffers himself to be bribed by that prince, ibid.

Scene, or Stage, part of the theatre of the ancients, i. 87.

Scerdiledes, king of Illyrium, exercises a kind of piracy at the expense of all his neighbours, vi. 140, he joins the Achaeans against the Ætolians, 211; he makes an alliance with the Romans, 239.

Sciences.—See Arts.

Scipio (Publius) marches into Spain against Hannibal, i. 293; he passes the Po, and is defeated near the Ticinus, 300; he is sent into Spain, and joins his brother Cn. Scipio there, 311; they make a great progress there, 319; they divide their troops, 321; Publius is killed in a battle, 322.

Scipio (Cneus) is sent by his brother into Spain to make head against Asdruhal, i. 294; the two brothers join each other, and have great

success, 311; Cneus is killed in a battle, 392.

Scipio (P. Cornel us), surnamed Africanus, makes himself master of all Spain, i. 325; he is elected consul, and goes over into Africa, ibid.; he has an interview with Hannibal, and gains a great victory over that general, 828, &c. ; he grants the Carthaginians peace, 330, conversation between Scipio and Hannibal at Ephesus, 359; Scipio serves as lieutenant to his brother L. Cornelius Scipio in the war with Antiochus, vii. 357; he rejects the offers of Antiochus, 4; Scipio's death, i. 344.

Scipio (L. Cornelius), surnamed Asiaticus, is charged with the war against Antiochus, vi. 357; he goes to Asia, vii. 3; he gains a famous victory over Autiochus, near Magnesia, 8; he receives the

honour of a triumph, 19.

Scipio (Nasica), son-in-law of Scipio Africanus, is charged wi important expedition by Paulus Æmilius, which he ex

highly for his honour, vii. 178; he is sent into Maccdonia, to ap-

pease the troubles excited by Andriscus, 225.

Scipio (Publius), surnamed Africapus the Younger, distinguishes himself in the war with Carthage, ii. 14; he returns to Rome to demand the office of edile, 15; the people give him the consulship, 16; Scipio goes to Africa, and advances against Carthage, ibid.; he takes that city and demolishes it, 21; he is sent ambassador into Egypt, Syria, and Greece, vii. 279; use which he makes of the presents sent him by Antiochus Sidetes, 285; character and praise of Scipio, i. 25; his intimate friendship with Polybius, 26.

Scismas, eldest son of Datames, becomes his accuser to Artaxernes.

Scopas is placed at the head of the Ætolian troops in the war against the Achaeans, vi. 206; he ravages Macedonia, 170; he prevails apon the Ætolians to make an alliance with the Romans. 238: he goes into the service of Ptolemy Epiphanes king of Egypt, 292; he possesses himself of Judaes, ibid., he is defeated by Antioshus, and obliged to accept ignominious conditions, 293; he conspires against Ptolemy, and is put to death, 320.

Scorpion, machine of war, viii. 49.

Scylax, Greek of Caryandia, is commissioned by Darius to discover India, ii. 851; he acquits himself happily of that commission, 352. Scythians. They possess themselves of Upper Asia, ii. 81; they are driven out of it at the end of twenty-eight years, ibid.; Darius designs to punish them for that invasion, 336; the Scythians refuse to submit, 347; they send a herald to Darius with presents, ibid.; they ravage Thrace, 351; they send ambassadors to Alexander, who speak to him with extraordinary freedom, v. 213; they are defeated and subjected by that prince, 216; they make war with Phrastes to revenge themselves on him for his injustice, defeat him in a battle, and ravage his kingdom, vii. 288; manners of the Seythians according to Herodetus, ii. 337; manners and character of the ancient Scythians according to Justin, 338; in what time luxury got ground amongst them, 342.

Scythopolis, city of the tribe of Manasseh, ii. 81.

Sea. Red Sea. The passage of the Red Sea, manifestly indicated in Diodorus Siculus, i. 175.

Sects of idolaters in the East, ii. 235; different sects of philosophers.—See Philosophers. Segesta, city of Sicily, puts itself under the protection of the Car-

thaginians, i. 233. Selasia, city of Peloponnesus, famous for the battle between Anti-

gonus and Cleomenes, vi. 175.

Science, daughter of Ptolemy Physicon and Cleopatra, is compelled by her mother to marry her brother Lathyrus, vii. 295; Cleopatra makes h.r quit Lathyrus, and gives her in marrige to Antiochus Grypus, 304; Selene, after the death of Grypus, marries Antiochus Eusebes, 306; Eusebes having been driven out of his dominions, she keeps possession of Ptolemais with part of Phoenicia and Colosyria, and reigns there many years, 308; she conceives hopes of ascending the throne of Egypt, 309; she sends her two to Rome with that view, ibid.

'1, city of Syris, built by Seleucus Nicator, vi. 25.

Seleucia, city situated upon the Tigris, built by Seleucus Nicator, vi. 31.

Seleucidae. Famous aera of the Seleucidae, v. 377; end of the empire of the Seleucidae in Asia, viii. 127.

Seleucus Nicator is placed at the head of all the cavalry of the allies after the death of Alexander, v. 312; he is settled by Antipater in the government of Babylon, 337; he joins Antigonus and Ptolemy against Eumenes, 354; he escapes from Babylon and retires into Egypt, 370; he forms a league with Ptolemy, Lysimachus, and Cassander, against Antigonus, 371; he makes himself master of Babylon, 377; he assumes the title of king, 394; he strengthens himself upon the throne of Syria, ibid.; he makes an expedition into India, vi. 17; league between Seleucus, Ptolemy, Cassander, and Lyamachus, against Antigonus and Demetrius, 20; Seleucus commands the army of the confederates, and gains a famous victory near Ipsus, 21; the four victorious princes divide the empire of Alexander the Great amongst them, 22; Seleucus builds several cities, 25; he makes an alliance with Demetrius, 26; he quarrels with him, and takes Cilicia from him, 27, 30; he builds Seleucia, 31; he forms a league with Ptolemy, Lysimachus, and Pyrrhus, against Demetrius 32; he gets that prince's person into his hands, 38; he gives his wife and part of his dominions to his son Antiochus, 56; he makes war against Lysimachus, defeats him in battle, and possesses himself of all his dominions, 58; he is assassinated by Ceraunus, whom he had laden with favours, 59; character of Seleucus, ibid.

Seleucus Callinious ascends the throne of Syria after his father Antiochus Theos had been poisoned by Laodice, vi. 117; he endeavours to retake what Ptolemy had conquered from him, and is unsuccessful on several occasions, 120; he unites with his brother Hierax against Ptolemy, 121; war between the two brothers, 122; Seleucus marches against Arsacca, 125; he is taken prisoner, ibid.;

death of Seleucus, 128.

Seleucus Ceraunus succeeds his father Seleucus Callinicus, vi. 185;

he is poisoned by two of his principal officers, 186.

Seleucus Philopator is left by his father Antiochus the Great to govern Syria during his absence, vii. 32; he ascends the throne of Syria, 37; he sends Hel odorus to Jerusalem to bring away its treasures, 36; Heliodorus causes him to be poisoned, 88.

Seleucus, the son of Demetrius Nicator, causes himself to be declared king of Syria, vii. 292; his mother Cleopatra kills him

with her own hands, ibid.

Seleucus, eldest sen of Antiochus Grypus king of Syria, succeeds him, vii. 304; he supports himself against Antiochus the Cyzi-

cenian, 305.

Seleucus Cybiosactes, son of Antiochus Eusebes and Selene, goes to Rome to solicit the senste for his mother, vii. 309; he accepts the crown of Egypt and Beresice, viii. 141; he renders himself odious by his base inclination, ibid.; Berenice causes him to be put to death, ibd.

Seleucus, governor of Pelusium for Cleopatra, delivers up that city

to Caesar by order of that queen, viii. 171.

Selinus, city of Sicily, iii. 234; destruction of that city by Hannibal, is 234.

Semiramis, queen of Assyria. Her birth, ii. 46; she marries Ninns. ibid. ; manner in which she ascends the throne, ibid.; she visits all the parts of her empire, 53; her authority over her people. ibid.; her conquests, ibid.; she puts the government into her son's hands and retires from the sight of mankind, 55; difference between Semiramis and Sardanapalus, 59.

Sempronius, consul, is defeated by Hannibal near Trebia, i. 392.

Senate. Carthaginian senate, i. 208; senate of Sparta, ii. 66; senate of Athens, vi. 132; senate of Rome described by Cineas, vi. 77. Sennacherib, king of Nineveh, declares war against Hezekish, and reduces Jerusalem to extremeties, ii. 62; he writes to Hezekiah a letter full of blasphemies against the Gon of Israel, and marches against the king of Egypt, whose dominions he ravages, itseld; he returns against Jerusalem, 63; his army is destroyed by an angel, ibid.; he is murdered by his own children, 64.

Septimius, Roman officer in the service of Ptolemy king of Egypt,

assassinates Pompey, v.i. 145.
eptuagint Version. Some account of it, vi. 68, &c. Sentuagint Version.

Scrapis. Divinity adorned in Egypt, vi. 40; his image is brought from Pontus to Alexandria, ibid.

Seron, general of Antiochus Epiphanes, is defeated by Judas Mac-

cabaeus, and killed in the battle, vii. 111. Sertorius, Roman general, makes a treaty with Mithridates. viii. 93.

Servilius serves in the Roman army in quality of proconsul, i. 312;

he is killed in the battle of Cannae, 314.

Sesach, or Sesonchis, king of Egypt, i. 184; he marches against Jerusalem, and carries away all its treasures, ibid.

Sesostris, king of Egypt. His education, i. 176; his conquests, 177; his works beneficial to Egypt, 178; his blind fondness for his own

grandeur, 179; his death, ibid.

Sethon, king of Egypt, causes himself to be consecrated high-priest of Vulcan, and abandons himself entirely to superstition, i. 185; miraculous manner in which, as Herodotus relates, he was delivered from Seunacherib's irruption into his dominions, 186: death of Sethon, 187.

Sethosis.—See Sesostris.

Southes, prince of Thrace, is re-established in his father's dominions by Xenophon, iv. 10; perfidy of that prince to Xenophon and his troops, ibid.

Shepherds. They were in great consideration in Egypt, i. 164; and in India, v. 233.

Shinar, plain where Babylon was built, fi. 44.

Shows. Difference of taste between the Greeks and Romans in respect to shows, i. 66; their passion for shows one of the principal causes of the decline, degeneracy, and corruption of Athens.70. Sicanians, people of Spain; they come to settle in Sicily, iii. 233.

Sicily, island of the Mediterranean. Description of it, i. 230; dif-

ferent people that inhabited it, iii. 233.

Sicyon, city of Peloponnesus. Its kings, ii. 258; it is delivered from tyranny, and united to the Achaean league by Aratne, vi. 180; Sicyon was 'ong in great reputation for arts and sciences, 133.

Sidon, city of Phonicia, i. 24; despair of the Sidonians when they see Ochus master of their city, iv. 338; they submit to Alexan-

der, v. 125.

cieges. Famous sieges of Antiquity. Of Carthage by the Romans,

in 14. &c.; of Babylon by Cyrus, 139; of the same city by Darice, 363; of Plataea by the Laceducmonians, iii. 192; of Syracuse by the Athenians, 254; of the same city by Marcellas, viii. 47, of Tyre by Alexander, v. 128; of Rhodes by Demetrius, vi. 3; of Athens by Sylla, viii. 76.

Signals by fire. Manner of making signals by fire, vi. 252.

Simon, surnamed the Just, succeeds his father Onias in the highpriesthood of the Jews, vi. 24; his death, 32.

Simon, son of Mattathias, vii. 110; he is chosen general in the room of his brother Jonathan, and marches against Tryphon, 272; he is made high-priest and prince of Judaea, 273; he renews the ancient treaties with the Romans, 276; death of Simon, 284.

Simon, Jew, has the guard of the temple assigned him. His trea-

chery, vii. 86.

Simonides, Greek poet. His answer to Hiero, who asked him what Gon was, iii. 162; Simonides preserved by the gods, i. 65.

Sinatrocces, king of the Parthians, vii. 340.

Sinope, city of Pontus. Lucullus gives it iberty, viii. 104. Sisyphus, son of Æolus, makes himself master of Corinth, ii. 261.

Sitalces, king of the Odrysians in Thrace, makes an alliance with the Athenians, iii. 183.

Slavery. Slaves. Slavery incompatible with the study of Philosophy, iii. 167; the highest price that can be paid for it cannot reconcile free men to it, v. 200.

Smerdis, or Tanaoxares, son of Cyrus, is made governor of several provinces by his father Cyrus, ii. 169; Cambyses causes him to be put to death, 184.

Smerdis the Magian passes for the son of Cyrus, and ascends the throne of Persia, ii. 187, e.c.; his imposture is discovered, 190; he is killed by the conspirators, 191.

Smerdonus, one of the six generals of Xerxes' army in that prince's expedition against Greece, iii. 37.

Smyrna, city of lonia, ii. 254.

Socrates, prince of philosophers. His birth, iv. 66; he applies at first to sculpture, 67; then to the study of the sciences, ibid.; his wonderful progress in them, ibid.; his taste for moral philosophy, fbid.; his character, 68; his employments, ibid.; his sufferings from the ill temper of his wife, 70; daemon or familiar spirit of Socrates, 71; the Delphie eracle declares him the wiscet of mankind, 73; Socrates distinguishes himself at the battle of Potidaea. and at that of Delium, iii. 196, 218; his intimacy with Alcibiades, 223; he devotes himself entirely to the instruction of the Athemian youth, iv. 74; attachment of his disciples to him, 75; admirable principles which he gives them upon government and religion, 77, &c.; he industriously applies himself to discredit the sophists in the opinion of the Athenian youth, 81; what we are to understand by the ironical manner ascribed to him, 82; Soerates is accused of holding false opinions concerning the gods, and of corrupting the youth of Athens, 84, &c.; he defends himself without art or meanness, 89; he is condemned to die, 94; he refuses to escape out of prison, 96; he passes the last day of his life in discoursing with his friends upon the immortality of the soul, 99, &c.; he drinks the hemlock, 103; punishment of his accusers, 105; honours rendered to his memory by the Athenians, ibid.; reflections upon the sentence passed on Secrates by the

Athenians, and upon Socrates himself, ibid.; analogy between the death of Socrates, and that of the governor of Tigranes,ii. 109.

Socrates of Achais, commands a body of Greek troops in the expedition of Cyrus the Younger, against his brother Artaxernes, iii. 339; he is seized by treachery, and put to death, 856.

Socrates, son of Nicomedes, dethrones his brother Nicomedes, king

of Bithynia, viii. 71.

Sogdiana, province of Upper Asia, i. 23; Alexander makes himself master of it, v. 211; it revolts against that prince, ibid.; great courage of thirty young Sogdian prisoners condemned to die by Alexander, 217.

Sogdianus, natural son of Artaxerxes Longimanus, killa Kerxes II. and ascends the throne of Persia in his stead, iii. 211; he puts Bagorazus, one of his father's eunuchs, to death, ibid.; he is dethroned by Oshus, who causes him to be stifled in ashes, 212.

Solar year. At what time it began to be used, i. 161.

Soldiers. Employment and exercises of the Roman soldiers in their

camp, vii. 175, 176.

Solon, one of the seven sages of Greece, is elected archon and legislator by the Athenians, ii. 290; government which he institutes at Athens, ibid. &c.; laws which he gives the Athenians, 292; travels of Solon into Egypt and Lydia, 297; his conduct at the court of Crossus, ibid.; conversation of Solon with Thales apon marriage, 288; at his return to Athens he finds every thing changed, 297; he endeavours to make Pisistratus abdicate the tyraany in vain, 299; death of Solon, ibid.

Soothsayers. Reflection upon the events of some of their predic-

tions, v. 285.

Sophists. Definition of the sophists, iv. 82.

Sophocles, one of the Athenian generals, is banished for not having

attempted the conquest of Sierly, iii. 232.

Sophocles, tragic poet. He disputes the prize with Æschylus, and earries it against him, i. 74; his death, ibid.; tragedies of his come down to us. 75; in what manner he defended himself in a very advanced age against the ingratitude of his children, ibid.; character of Sophocles, 77.

Sophonisba, Asdrubal's daughter, is married to Syphax, ii. 2; Mannissa, having conquered Syphax, marries Sophonisba, and to save her from falling into the hands of the Romans is reduced to send

her poison, ibid.

Sophrosyne, daughter of Dionysius the Elder, is married to her bro-

ther Dionysius the Younger, iv. 203.

Sornatius, one of Lucullus's officers, commands in Pontus during the

absence of that general, viii. 104.

Sosibes, Ptolemy Philopator's minister, causes Arainoe, the king's sister and wife. to be murdered, vi. 203; he is obliged to quit his employment, ibid.; he prevents that prince from aiding Cleomenes, and advises h.m to seize his person, 208.

Sosibes, son of the former, has the care of the person of the young

king Ptolemy Epiphanes, vi. 274.

Sosilus, Lacedaemonian, preceptor to Hannibal, i. S05; he accompanies Hannibal in his expeditions, and composes the history of that great captain, ib'd.

Seas, one of the chief conspirators against Hieronymus, seizes the

INBEX.

quarter Ashradina, and exhorts the Syracusans to recover their liberty, viii. 40; He is chosen one of the principal magistrates, 41; he commands the troops sent to the aid of Marcellus, 46.

Sosius (Caius), consul, declares for Antony, and goes to him, vili. 164. Seethenes, Macedonian, drives the Gauls out of Macedonia, and reigns there for some time, vi. 62; he is overpowered by the

great number of Brennus's troops, 63.

Sestratus, architect, builds the tower of Pharos, vi. 40; deceit which he uses for engrossing the whole bonour of that work to himself, i. 144.

Sostrates, or Sosistratus, governor of Syraouse, delivers up that city to Pyrrhus, v. 86; Pyrrhus, in return, is for putting him to death, 87. Soul. Discourse of Socrates before his death upon the immortality of the soul, iv. 99.

Sous, king of Sparta, with his colleague Agis, takes the city of Elos.

i. 100.

Description of Spain, i. 228; mines of gold and silver, 214; Spain. the Carthaginians make themselves masters of part of Spain, 250; it is entirely conquered by the Romans, 325.

Sparts.—See Laceduemon.

Spendius of Capua, in concert with Matho, causes the mercenaries to revolt against the Carthaginians, i. 276; he is placed at their head, ibid.; he puts Gisco to death, 278; he treats with the Carthaginians, 280; he is seized and hanged, ibid.

Sphacteria, small island over against Pylos, iii. 205. Spherus, philosopher, assists Cleomenes in re-establishing the an-

cient discipline in Sparts, vi. 159.

Sphodrias, Lacedaemonian, who commanded in Thespiae, forms a fruitless enterprise, against the Piraeus, iv. 271; he is acquitted for that attempt by the influence of Agesilaus, ibid.

Spirit. Familiar spirit of Socrates, iv. 71.

Spitamenes, confident of Bessus, forms a conspiracy against him, and delivers him up to Alexander, v. 208; he raises Bactriana against that prince, 218; his wife, not being able to persuade him to surrender himself to Alexander, kills him in the night, 226.

Spithridates, one of Artaxerxes Mnemon's principal officers, goes over to Agenlaus, and does him great services, iv. 33; offended at the excessive severity of Herippidas, he retires to Sardis, ibid.

Spithrobates, satrap of Ionia, and somin-law of Darius, distinguishes himself by his valour at the battle of the Granicus, v. 95; Alexander lays him dead with his lance, 96.

Stagira, city of Macedonia, Aristotle's native place, destroyed by

Philip and rebuilt by Alexander, v. 77.

Stasscrates, architect and great mechanic, is appointed by Alexander to execute the Catafalco, or magnificent funeral pile of Hephaestion, v. 279; he proposes to Alexander to sut Mount Athos into the form of a man, ibid.—See Dinocrates.

Stater, ancient coin. Its value, iii. 185.

States.—See Kingdoms.

Statira, wife of Artaxerxes Mnemon. Revenge which she takes for the death of her brother Teriteuchmes, iii. 323,

Statira, wile of Darius, falls into Alexander's bands, v. 119; death

of that princess, 161.

Statira, eldest daughter of Darius, marries Alexander the Great, v 269; she is murdered by the intrigues of Roxans, 314.

Statira, sister of Mithridates, receives orders from that prince to die.

viii, 100; she dies courageously, ibid.

Stesagoras, eldest son of Cimon, is established sovereign of the Thracian Chersonesus by his uncle Miltiades, iii. 3.

Sthenelus, king of Mycense, ii. 259.

Stilpon of Megara, philosopher, v. 386.

Stratius, physician, goes to Rome with Attalus, vii. 201; his wise remonstrances prevent that prince from asking to share the kingdom of Pergamus with his brother Eumenes, ibid., &c.

Stratonice, daughter of Demetrius, marries Seleucus, vi. 27: that

prince gives her to his son Antiochus, 5%.

Stratonice, one of the wives of Mithridates, submits to Pompey, viii. 128; revenge Mithridates takes of her. ibid.

Sua, king of Ethiopia.—See Sabacus.

Suffetes, chief magistrates of the Carthaginians, i. 208.

Bulpitius (P.), Roman praetor, is sent against Philip, vi. 239; different actions of Sulpitius in Macedonia, 241; he is elected consul, and goes into Macedonia, 282; he gains a considerable victory

over Philip, 287, &c.

Sulpitius Gallus, tribune of the Roman army against Perseus, foretels an eclipse to the troops, vii, 181; the senste commissions him to inspect secretly the conduct of Eumenes and Antiochus, 214; his imprudent conduct in executing that commission, ibid.

Superstition. Its great effect upon the minds of the populace. v. 165. Surena, general of the army of the Parthians, gains a great victory over Crassus, vii. 357, &cc.; Orodes, jealous of his glory, puts him

to death, viii. 3; praise of Surena, ibid.

Surveying invented by the Egyptians, i. 162.

Susa, city of Persia, submits to Alexander, v. 177.

Swans, what is said of their singing, i. 142.

Sybaris, city of Great Greece, iii. 169; luxury and effeminacy of its inhabitants, 170; total ruin of that city, ibid.

Sybota. Island over against Coreyra, famous for the battle between the people of Coreyra, and the Corinthians, iii. 146.

Syennesis, king of Cilicia, abandons the pass of that country on the

approach of Cyrus the Younger, iii. 340. Sylla serves under Marius in quality of quaestor, ii. 89; that generel sends him to Bocchus to receive Jugurtha from him, ibid.; he causes a ring to be made with that action represented upon it, which he uses ever after as his seal, ibid.; he re-establishes Ariobarzanes upon the throne of Cappadocia, viii. 70; he is charged with the war against Mithridates, 76; he besieges Athens, ibid.; and takes it, 79; he is viotorious in three great battles against the general of Mithridates, 81, &c.; he has an interview with that prince and grants him peace, 88; he marches against Fimbria, 89; he passes through Athens, seizes its library, and sends it to Rome, ibid.

Syloson, brother of Polycrates, tyrant of Samos. His generosity to

Darius, ii. 322; reward which he receives for it, 333.

Sypbax, king of Numidia, joins with the Romans, ii. 1; he is defeated by Masinissa, 2; he marries Sophoniaba, and goes over to the Carthaginians, ibid.; he is defeated by Scipio, and taken pri-

Syraco, name of a marsh from whence Syracuse took its name, iii. 250. Syracuse, city of Sicily. Its foundation, iii. 248; description of that city, ibid.; history of Syrasuse to the reign of Gelon, 156; of Hiero, 161; of Thrasybulus, 164; siege of Syracuse by the Athemians, 253, &c.; the city is reduced to extremities, 257; the arrival of Gylippus changes the face of affairs, 259; the Syrabusans make themselves masters of the Athenian army, and put the two generals to death, 277, &c.; Dionysius makes himself tyrant of Syracuse, iv. 175; ineffectual attempts of the Syracusans against him, 180, &c.; Dionysius the Younger succeeds his father, 207; Dion expels him, 223, &c.; horrible ingratitude of the Syracusans to Dion, 226, &c.; Dionysius the Younger reascends the throne, 241; Syracuse implores the aid of the Corinthians, who send them Timoleon, 243; that general restores the liberty of the oity, 249; Agathocles usurps the supreme authority at Syracuse, i. 245; after the death of that tyrant, Syracuse recovers its liberty, viii. 63; it calls in the aid of Pyrrhus against the Carthaginians, i. 254; it chooses Hiero II. king, viii. 22; mildness of his reign, 24; Hieronymus succeeds Hiero, 31; troubles at Syracuse after the death of Hieronymus, 39; Syracuse besieged and taken by Marcellus, 47, 57; reflections upon the government and character of the Syracusans, 64.

Syria, province of Asia, i. 24; it is reduced into a Roman province.

viii. 127.

Sysigambis, mother of Darius, is taken prisoner by Alexander, after the battle of Issus, v. 119; she cannot survive the death of Alexander, 287.

Т.

Tachos ascends the throne of Egypt, iv. 314; he raises troops to defend himself against the king of Persia, ibid.; he obtains troops from the Lacedaemoians, who are commanded by Agesilaus, ibid.; seeing himself abandoned by Agesilaus, he quits Egypt, and retires to the court of Persia, 315; Artaxerxes pardons him, and gives him the command of his troops against the rebels, ibid.

Talthybius, Agamemnon's herald, honoured as a god at Sparta, iii. 8. Tamos, Egyptian, commands the fleet of Cyrus the Younger in that prince's expedition against his brother, iii. 339.

Tanaoxares, son of Cyrus.—See Smerdis.

Tarentum, city of Italy, i. 104; the Tarentines call in Pyrrhus to their aid against the Romans, vi. 73; that prince leaves a gerrison in their city, 85.

Tarraconia, part of ancient Spain, i. 228.

Tarsus, city of Cilicia, subjected by Alexander, v. 103.

Taxilus, Indian king, puts himself under the protection of Alexander, v. 240; he accompanies that prince in his expedition against Porus, ibid.; Alexander sends him to Porus to persuade him to submit, 246; Porus is reconciled to Taxilus, 255.

Taxiles, one of the generals of Mithridates, joins Archelaus, and

is defeated by Sylla, viii. 80, 83.

Teges, city of Arcadia, ii. 252; war between its inhabitants and those of Mantinese, iv. 299.

Tegyra, city of Rœotia, battle between the Thebans and Lacedaemonians near it, iv. 273.

Telearch, office amongst the Thebans. What it was, iv. 285.

Telecles, king of Lacedaemon, assassinated by the Messenians, i. 103. Telescope, glass for seeing remote objects. Invention of it, vi. 260. Teleutias, is declared admiral of the Lacedaemonian fleet by the

influence of Agesilaus, his brother by the mother's aide, iv. 45; he besieges Corinth by sea, ibid.; he is sent against Olynthus, in the room of Phaebidas, 261; he is killed in battle, ibid.

Telys Sybarite, occasions the ruin of his country iii. 210.

Temenes, one of the principal Heraclidae re-enters Peleponnesus, ii. 283; Argos falls to him by lot, ibid.

Temple, famous one of Ephesus, v. 75.

Ten. Council of Ten established at Athens, iii. 331.

Tennes, king of Sidon, delivers up that city to Ochus, iv. 338; Ochus, to reward his treason, puts him to death, 339.

Tenth. Custom among the Greeks of giving the tenth to the gods, fii. 71.

Terence, Latin poet. Abridgment of his life, i. 218.

Terillus, tyrant of Himera, deprived of his power by Theron, engages the Carthaginians to invade Sicily, iii. 157.

Teriteushmes, brother of Statira, wife of Artaxerxes, marries Hamestris daughter of Darius, iii. 323; tragical history of Teri-

teuchmes, ibid.

Teuts, after the death of Agron her husband, prince of Hyrium, reigns in his stead, vi. 140; her gross insult on the Romans in the persons of their ambassadors, ibid.; she is obliged to demand peace of them, and obtains it, 141.

Thais, famous courtezan born in Attica, occasions the burning of the palace of Persepolis, in a drunken revel with Alexander, v. 184.

Thales of Miletus, philosopher. Reasons that prevented him from marrying, ii. 289; founder of the Ionis sect, 313.

Thalestris, queen of the Amazons, comes from a remote equatry to visit Alexander, v. 197.

Tharaca, king of Ethiopia, after the death of Sethon, i. 187.

Tharsish, second son of Javan, settles in Greece, ii. 256.

Thasus, island in Thrace, revolts against the Atheniana, iii. 112; Cimon obliges it to submit, 113.

Theano, priestess at Athens, refuses to curse Alcibiades, iii. 246.

Thearides, brother to Dionysius the Elder, is sent to Olympia by that tyrant to dispute the prizes of poetry and the chariot-race, iv. 196.

Theatre. Description of the theatre of the ancients, i. 87; declamation of the theatre composed and set to notes, 90.

Thebais, part of Egypt, i. 126.

Thebe, wife of Alexander, tyrant of Pherae, obtains permission of her husband to see and converse with Pelopidas, iv. 293; her conversations with that Theban make her conceive an aversion for her husband, ibid.; she makes her three brothers assassingte

the tyrant, 298.

Thebes, city of Bocotia in Greece. Its foundation, ii. 260; kings of Thebes, city of Bocotia in Greece. Its foundation, iii. 176; they gain a victory over the Athenians, near Delium, 218; they give refuge to the Athenians, who fied after the taking of their city by Lysander, 330; they enter into a league with Tithraustes against the Lacedaemonians. iv. 36; valour of the Thebans at the battle of Coronaca, 42; they are compelled by the treaty of Antalcidas to give the cities of Bocotia their liberty. 257; Thebes falls into the hands of the Lacedaemonians, 259; Pelopidas restores it to its liberty, 268; the Thebans gain a considerable advantage over the Lacedaemonians near Tegyra, 273; they de-

stroy Plataea and Thespiae, 274; they defeat the Lacedaemonisms. and put them to flight at the battle of Leuetra, 278; they ravage Laconia, and advance to the gates of Sparta, 281; they send Pelopidas to the court of Persia, and obtain the title of friends and. allies of the king, 287; they make Alexander, tyrant of Pherae,

-submit, 290.

The Thebans make a second attempt against Sparta, iv. 2994 they gain a great victory over the Lacedaemonians near Mantinaea, 301, &c.; they aid Artabasus against the king of Persia, 324; they call in Philip to their aid against the Phocians, v. 27; the Thebans, Messenians, and Argives, enter into an alliance with Philip to attack Peloponnesus, 38; the Thebans join the Athenians against Philip, 56; they are defeated near Chaeronaea, 57; Philip puts a garrison into their city, 58; the Thebans, after the death of that prince, put part of the garrison to the sword, 84; Alexander marches against them, and destroys their city, ihid., &cc. ; re-establishment of Thebes by Cassander, 359; the Thebans make an alliance with the Romans in the war against Perseus, vii. 141; they surrender themselves to the Romans, 155; Sylla deprives them of half their territory, viii. 83.

Theft of a certain kind permitted and even commanded to the young Lacedaemonians, ii. 273; it was the most severely punished of all

crimes by the Scythians, 328.

Themistocles, Athenian, distinguishes himself at the battle of Marathon, iii. 12; he removes Epicydes from the command, and causes himself to be elected general in his stead, 40; he supports the decree to recal Aristides, 41; he resigns the honour of commanding the fleet to the Laudaemonians, 43; he induces the Athenians to abandon their city, 51; he persuades the Greeks to fight in the strait of Salamis, 55; the Lacedaemonians decree the prize of wisdom to him after the victory of Salamis, 60; acclamations with which he is received at the Olympic games, ibid.; he restores the walls of Athens, and fortifies the Piraeus, 81; black design which he conceives for supplanting the Lacedaemonians, 82; the Athenians and Lacedaemonians uniting against him as an accomplice in the conspiracy of Pausanias, he takes refuge with Admetus, 89; he retires to Artaxerxes, 104; his great influence with that prince, 106; he kills himself, 113; character of Themistocles, 4, 114.

Themistus, magistrate of Syracuse, conspires with Andranodorus to sieze the sovereignty, viii. 41; he is killed by order of the

other magistrates, 42.

Thenon, commander of the citadel of Syracuse, surrenders himself to Pyrrhus, vi. 86; that prince puts him to death, 87.

Theoritus, poet at the court of Hiero, viii. 30.

Theodorus, chief of the Eumolpidae at Athens. What he ventured to say in respect to the maledictions or curses, iii. 296.

Theodorus, citizen of Syracuse, ventures to declare himself openly against Dionysius in favour of liberty, iv. 191.

Theodorus, uncle of Heraclides, is deputed by him to Dion, to conjure him to return to the aid of Syracuse, iv. 232; he puts himself into Dion's hands, 233; Dion pardons him, 234.
Theodotus, governor of Bactriana, revolts against Antiochus, and

causes himself to be declared king of that province, vi. 109; he

dies. 124.

Theodotus, son of the former, succeeds his father, vi. 124; forms a league offensive and defensive with Arasces, ibid.

Theodotus is charged by Antiochus with the war against Molo, vi-187; he is defeated and obliged to abandon the field of battle.

188.

Theodotus, Etolian, governor of Colosyria for Ptolemy, defection the entrance into that province against Antiochus, and obliges that prince to retire, vi. 189; he is accused, and obliged to go to the court of Egypt to give an account of his conduct, 195; in resentment for that affront, he declares for Antiochus, and puts the cities of Tyre and Ptolemais into his hands, ibid.; he enters the camp of Ptolemy in the night with design to kill him, 198; he fails in that attempt, and escapes to his camp, ibid.

Theodotus, one of the principal conspirators against the life of Hieronymus, is put to the rack, and dies without discovering any of

his accomplices, viii. S7.

Theodotus, preceptor to the last Ptolemy, advises that prince to put Pompey to death, viii. 144; he goes to present the head of that Roman to Caesar, 146.

Theogiton, of Megara, gives the Greeks wise advice after the battle

of Plataea, iii. 70.

Theophrastus, Antigonus's general, refuses to quit Corinth, vi. 139;
Aratus causes him to be put to death, ibid.

Theophrastus, philosopher, his dispute with an old woman of

Athens, in buying something of her, iv. 160.

Theopompus, king of Sparta, commands in the war against the Argives, i. 102; then against the Messenians, 103; he is defeated, taken prisoner, and put to death by Aristomenes, 106; he establishes the Ephori, ii. 250.

Theopompus, disciple of Isocrates, gains the prize of eloquence over his master, and has the weakness and vanity to brag of it, iv. 334. Theoxena, Thessalian lady, daughter of Merodicus, marries Poris,

vii. 64; tragical and courageous end of Theoxena, 65.

Theramenes, one of the Athenian generals, is charged with the care of burying the dead after the battle of the Arginusse, iii. 307; not being able to execute that order, he makes the other generals responsible for it, and accuses them at Athens, 308; he is deputed to Lysander during the siege of Athens, 317; he opposes the violence of his colleagues, and draws their hatred upon himself, 238; he is accused by Critias, and put to death, ibid.

Thermae, capital city of Ætolia, taken by surprise, and ravaged by

Philip, vi. 221.

Thermopylae, pass of Mount Œta in Thessaly, iii. 43; battle of Thermopylae between the Lacedaemonians and Xerxes, 45, &c.; victory of the Romans over Antiochus near Thermopylae, vi. 351.

Theron, tyrant of Agrigentum, makes an alliance with Gelon, and gains in conjunction with him a great battle over the Carthaginians, iii. 157.

Theseus, king of Athens, ii. 260; he dies in the island of Seyros, whither he had been obliged to fly, iii. 108; Cimon brings his bones to Athens, ibid.

Thesmothetae, Athenian magistrates, iv. 136.

Thespiae, city of Achaia, ruined by the Thebans, iv. 274.

Thespis, Greek poet, considered as the inventor of tragedy, ii. 398. Thessabnica, wife of Cassander, is killed by Antipater his eldest on, vi. 31.

Thessalus, third son of Pisistratus, ii. 300.

Thessaly, province of ancient Greece, ii. 253; the Thessalians submit to Xerzes, iii. 43; they implore aid of the Thebans against Alexander of Pherae, iv. 290; Pelopidas delivers them from his power, ibid.; they have recourse to Philip against their tyrants, v. 18; that prince delivers them, 19.

Thesta, sister of Dionysius the Elder, and wife of Polyxenes. Courageous answer which she gives her brother upon the occasion of

her husband's escape, iv. 192.

Thetae, name of the lower class of people at Athens, iv. 128.

Thethmosis, or Amosis, having driven the shepherd-kings out of Egypt, reigns there, i. 174.

Thimbron, Lacedaemonian general, marches against Tissaphernes and Pharnabasus, iv. 11; upon some discontent he is recalled, 16.

Thirty. Council of Thirty established at Lacedaemon, ii. 268; thirty tyrants established at Athens by Lysander, iii. 318; cruelties which they commit in that city, 327; Thrasybulus drives them out of Athens, 330; they endeavour to reinstate themselves, and are all put to the sword, 331.

Thous, Ætolian, charged with the execution of a design to seize Chalcia, fails in the attempt, vi. 342; he goes to Antiochus, and

induces him to enter Greece, 344.

Thrace, province of Europe. Very singular customs of its inhabitants. ii. 349; Thrace subjected by Philip, v. 35, &c.

Thrase, confident of Hieronymus, is accused by Theodottu of having conspired against that prince, viii. 37; he is put to death, 38. Thrasybulus, tyrant of Miletus, is besieged by Halyattes, ii. 86; stra-

tagem which he uses to deliver himself from that siege, ibid.

Thrasybulus, brother of Gelon, reigns at Syracuse after Hiero's death, iii. 164; he causes himself to be dethroned by h s cruelty, 165. Thrasybulus is made general of the Athenians, iii. 290; he accuses

Aleibiades at Athens, and causes him to be deposed, 301; he quits Athens to avoid the cruelty of the thirty tyrants, 330; he expels the tyrants from that city, and restores its liberty, 331.

Thrasylus is made general of the Athenians, iii. 290.

Thrasymene. Lake of Tuscany, famous for Hannibal's victory over

the Romans, i. 305.

Thucydides, Greek historian. He is commanded to go to the aid of Amphipolis, iii. 217; the Athenians make it a crime in him to have suffered that city to be taken, and banish him, ibid.

Thucydides, brother in law to Cimon, is set up against Pericles by the nobility of Athens, iii. 132; Pericles prevails to have him

banished, 136.

Thurium, city of Sicily. Its foundation, iii. 170.

Thymbra, city of Lydia, famous for the battle between Cyrus and Cresus, ii. 124.

Thyrea, small territory of Greece, which occasioned the war between the Argives and Lacedaemonians, i. 102.

Thyus, governor of Paphlagonia, revolts against Artaxerxes, iv. 61;

he is conquered by Datames, ibid.

Tiberius Gracehus is sent by the senate into Asia to examine into the conduct of Eumenes, and that of Antiochus, vii. 215.—See Gracehus.

Tieinus, river of Italy, near which P. Scipio was defeated by F bal, i. 299.

Tiglath Pileser, king of Nineveh, ii. 61; he aids Ahaz, king of Ja-

dah, against the kings of Syria and Israel, ibid.

Tigranes, son of Tigranes, king of Armenia, is set at liberty by the Parthians on his father's death, and placed upon the throne, vii. 305; he accepts the crown of Syria, and wears it eighteen years, 508; he marries Cleopatra, daughter of Mithridates, viii. 71; he invades the kingdom of Cappadocia, 92; he gives Mithridates refuge, 100; the Romans declare war against him, 104; Tigranes is defeated by Lucullus, 108; he raises new troops in concert with Mithridates, 111; he is defeated a second time, 114; Pompey marches sgainst him, and finds him at war with his son, 123; Tigranes submits his person and crown to the discretion of Pompey and the Romans, ibid.; Pompey leaves him part of his domainions, 124.

Tigranes, son of the former, makes war with his father, viii. 123; he puts himself under the protection of Pompey, ibid.; not being satisfied with Pompey's decree, he endeavours to fly, 124;

Pompey reserves him for his triumph, 125.

Tigranocerta, city of Armenia, built by Tigranes, viii. 92; Lucullus takes it, and abandons it to be plundered by the soldiers, 110. Timaca, wife of Agia. Excess of her passion for Alcibiades, iii. 248. Timagoras, deputed by the Athenians to the court of Persia, re-

ceives great presents, and a condemned to die at his return, iv. 289. Timandra, concubine, renders Alc biades the last duties, iii. 326.

Timarchus, tyrant of Miletus, is conquered and killed by Antiochus

Theos, vi. 105.
Timarchus, governor of Babylon, revolts against Demetrius Soter,

and a put to death, vii. 259,
Timasion is chosen one of the generals of the Greeks after the death

of Clearchus, iv. 1.

Timasitheus, chief of the pirates of Lipara. His noble and religious

behaviour in respect to the Romans, iv. 242.

Timogrates, friend of Dionysius the Younger, marries Dion's wife while he is banished, iv. 223; he flies on the approach of Dion, 224.

Timolaus, of Corinth, advises the cities in alliance against the Spartans to attack them in their own territory, iv. 39.

Timolaus, Lacedaemonian, who lodged at the house of Philopæmen, is sent by his country to offer him the riches of Nabis, vi. 343; he finds it difficult to acquit himself of that commission, ibid.

Timoleon, Corinthian, sacrifices his brother Timophanes to his country, iv. 243; the Corinthians send him to the aid of Syracuse, 244; he cludes the vigilance of the Carthaginians by a skilful stratagem, 245; he gains an advantage over the Carthaginians and Icetas near the city of Adranon, 246; he enters Syracuse, ibid.; Dionyaius surrenders himself to him, ibid.; Timoleon sends him to Corinth, 247; he gains several victories over the Carthaginians, 249; he re-establishes the liberty of Syracuse, and institutes wise laws there, ibid., &c.; he frees the other cities of Sicily from tyranny, 251, &c.; he gains a great victory over the Carthaginians, 252; he is accused and cited to answer, ibid.; he quits his authority, and passes the rest of his life in retirement. 253; great honours rendered his memory, 254, &c.; his panegyric, ibid &c.

Timophanes. Corinthian, having made himself tyrant of his country, his brother Timoleon causes him to be assassinated, iv. 243.

Timothers, son of Conon, is sent by the Athenians with a fleet to the aid of the Thebans, iv. 271; he ravages the coasts of Lasenia, and makes himself master of the island of Coreyra, 273; he is employed by the Athenians in the war against the allies, 325; has is accused by Chares, and sentenced to pay a great fine, 328, he retires to Chalcis, and dies there, ibid.; fine saying of Timothers, 597.

Timotheus, lieutenant of Antiochus Epiphanes, is defeated by Judas Maccabaeus, vii. 116; he is defeated a second time by the

same captain in the reign of Antiochus Eupator. 258.

Timoxenes is chosen general of the Achaeans, in the room of Ara-

tus, vi. 164.

Tiribasus, general of Artaxerxes Mnemon, determines that prince not to fly before his brother Cyrus, iii. 342; he commands the fleet of Artaxerxes against Evagoras, and besieges that prince in Salamis, iv. 52; he is fatsely accused by Orontes, and carried to the court in chains, 53; trust of Tiribasus, 57; the king discovers his innocence, and restores him to his favour, 58; Tiribasus accompanies Artaxerxes in that prince's expedition against the Cadusians, 59; his atratagem for making that people return to their obedience to the Persians, ibid.

Tiribasus, satrap of western Armenia, harasses the ten thousand

Greeks in their retreat, iv. 4.

Tirintateehmus, son of Artabanes, one of the commanders of the army of Xerxes in that prince's expedition against Greece, iii. 37. Tisamenes, son of Orestes, reigns at Mycenae with his brother Penthilus, ii. 262.

Tisippus, Etolian, is accused of having exercised great cruelties against those who had not taken part with the Romans against

Perseus, vii. 207; Paulus Æmilius acquits him, ib d.

Tissaphernes, Persian of quality, is appointed by Darius to reduce Pisuthnes governor of Lydia, iii. 213; he effects it, and has the government of Lydia for his reward, ibid.; he suffers himself to be seduced by the flattery of Aleibades, and gives himself up entirely to him, 284; he concludes a treaty with the Peloponnesians, 288; he causes Aleibiades to be seized, and sent prisoner to Sardis, 292; he commands in the army of Artaxerxes Mnemon at the battle of Cunaxa, and distinguishes himself in it, 342; he takes upon him to re-conduct the Greeks into their own country, 353; he seizes Clearchus and the other generals by treachery, and sends them to Artaxerxes, 356; he joins Pharnabasus to oppose the enterprises of Dercyllidas, iv. 19; he sends to command Agesilaus to quit Asia, and to declare war against him in case of refusal, 29; he is defeated near Sardis, 30; he is accused of treason, 31; Artaxerxes puts him to death, ibid.; character of Tisserphernes, ibid.

Tithraustes seizes Tissaphernes by order of Artaxerxes, and is placed at the head of the army in his stead, iv. 31; he arms the seve-

ral states of Greece against the Lacedaemonians, 36.

Tobit is carried captive into Assyria, ii. 62; he hides himself some time to avoid the cruelty of Sennacherib, 64; he foretels the ruin of Nineveh to his children, 65.

Tomyris, queen of the Soythians, ii. 177; manner in which, as Herodotus relates, she caused Cyrus to be put to death, ibid.

Tragedy. Its origin, i. 71; its progress, 72; poets who distinguish. ed themselves in tragedy, ibid.

Trebia, river of Lombardy, famous for Hunnibal's victory over the

Romans, i. 301.

Tremellus, surnamed Scrofs, defeats and kills a third usurper of the kingdom of Macedonia, vii. 227.

Triballi, people of Mosia, v. 49; they pretend to share with Philip in the booty taken from the Scythians, ibid.; they are defeated by that prince, ibid.; they are defeated by Alexander, 83.

Trierarchs, Athenian officers. Their functions, iv. 350.

Træzene, city of Argolis, gives refuge to the Athenians who had lately abandoned their city, in. 52.

Trophies erected by the ancients after a victory, i. 67.

Trophonius, hero, i. 38; famous oracles of Trophonius in Bootia, ibid.

Trough. Kind of punishment used by the Persians, iii. 102. Troy, city of Asia, taken and burnt by the Greeks, ii. 261.

Trypnena, daughter of Physcon, is married to Antiochus Grypus, vii. 294; she sacrifices her sister Cleopatra to her jealousy, 297; Antiochus, of Cyzicum, puts her to death in torments, ibid.

Tunis, city of Africa, is taken by Regulus, i. 261; the mercenaries who revolt against Carthage make it their place of arms, 275.

Tyche, quarter of the city of Syraouse, iii. 249.

Tydeus, one of the Athenain generals, rejects the advice of Alcibiades, and occasions the loss of the battle of Ægospotamos, iii. 314. Tygris, river of Asia, v. 163.

Tyndarus, king of Lacedaemon, ii. 260.

Tyre, city of Phonicia. Its foundation, v. 140; Tyre besieged and taken by Nabuchodonosor, it 70; Darius reinstates it in its ancient privileges, 354; Tyre besieged and taken by Alexander, v. 129, 130; then by Anugonus, 372; accomplishment of the different prophecies concerning Tyre, 139, &c.

Tyrtaeus, Greek poet. The Athenians give him to the Lacedemonians to command them, i. 109; character of his poetry, ibid.; he revives the courage of the latter, and occasions their gaining a great victory over the Messenians, ibid.; he is made a citizen of Sparta, ibid.

VARGUNTEIUS, one of the lieutenants of Crassus, being separated from the main body of the army, is attacked by the Parthians, and dies fighting gloriously, vii. 355.

Varro (C. Terentius), consul, is defeated by Hannibal at the battle

of Cannae, i. 314.

Vasthi, w fe of Darius.—See Atossa.

Uchoreus, king of Egypt, builds Memphis i. 154.

Udiastes, friend of Teriteuchmes, assassinates him by order of Darius. iii. 323; Statira causes him to be put to death in torments, 324.

Ventidius, Roman soldier, rises to the highest dignities of the commonwealth by his merit, viii. 5; he revenges the disgrace of the Romans at the battle of Carrae, and defeats the Parthians upon several occasions, ibid., &c.

Villius is elected consul, and makes war with Philip in the room of Sulpitius, vi. 290; nothing considerable passes during his year, 291; he is sent ambassailor to Antiochus, and succeeds in mak.

ing that prince suspect Hannibal, 331, &c.

University of Paris. France obliged to it for the establishment of posts and post-offices, ii. 208.

Urania, divinity of the Carthaginians.—See Colestia.

Usury. To what excess it was carried in the later times of the Roman commonwealth. viii. 101.

Utaus, city of Africa, abandons the side of Carthage, and joins the revolted mercenaries, i. 279; is compelled to surrender at discretion, 281; it puts itself into the hands of the Romans, ii. 9; the latter reward it with the lands between Carthage and Hippo, 24.

Uxii, people upon the frontiers of Persia, conquered by Alexander the Great, v. 181.

W.

WASPS, comedy of Aristophanes so called, i. 82.

Water. Sweet water how preserved at Alexandria, viii. 150.

Wells of Joseph in the castle of Cairo in Egypt. Description of them, i. 127.

Wrestling. Exercise of wrestling amongst the ancients, i. 52.

Writing. Its origin, i. 166.

X.

XANTHIPPUS, Lacedaemonian, comes to the aid of the Carthaginians, i. 262; he defeats the army of Regulus, 264; he retires and disappears soon after, 265.

Xanthippus, citizen of Athens, accuses Miltiades of treason, iii. 16, Xanthippus, father of Pericles, abandoning Athens on the approach of Xerxes, his dog follows his ship to Salamis, and expires on the shore, iii. 52.

Xanthippus, Athenian, commands the fleet of the Greeks in conjunction with Leotychides king of Sparta, and gains a great vic-

tory over the Persians, near Mycale, iii. 75. Xanthippus, eldest son of Pericles, dies of the plague, iii. 188.

Xanthus, philosopher, whose slave Æsop was, i. 318.

Xantippe, wife of Socrates. His sufferings from her ill humour, iv. 70.
Xenetas, Achaean, is sent against Molo and Alexander by Antiochus, vi. 188; he falls into an ambuscade and is cut to pieces with his whole army, ibid.

Xenocrates, philosopher, in what manner he was received by Antipater, to whom he had been sent ambassador by the Athenians,

v. 321.

Xenon is charged by Antiochus with the war against Molo, vi. 186; he is defeated, 187.

Xenon, Achaean, exclaims against the demand of the Roman commissaries, in an assembly, vii. 210.

Menophanes, Philip's ambassador to Hannibal, falls into the hands of the Romans, vi. 232; he escapes and concludes the treaty with Hannibal, ibid.; he is taken on his return by the Romans. 233.

Xenophon, histor'an and philosopher. He commands the ten thousand Greeks after the death of Clearchus, and brings them back into their own country, iv. 2, &c.; he joins the Lacedaemonians in the war against Tissaphernes and Pharnahasus, 11; he acts under Agesilaus at the battle of Coronaea, 39; difference between Xenophon and Herodotus in their accounts of Cyrus, ii. 176, &c.

Xerxes I. son of Darins, is elected king of Persia in preference to his brother Artsbazanes, iii. 19; he confirms the Jews of their privileges, 22; he reduces Egypt, ibid.; he prepared to have

Greece, ibid.; he deliberates with his connect operating that expedition, ibid.; wise speech of Artahanes to him, 91; rage of Xerxes upon that occasion, 25; he discovers his error, and confesses it in full council. 26; the war is received, 27; Xerxes enters into an alliance with the Carthaginiana, 28; he begins his march, and gives orders for cutting a way through Mount Achos, 29: his letter to that mountain upon that subject, ib.d.; he advances to Sardia, 30; his eruelty to Pythius, 31; he marches towards the Hellespont, 32; he causes the sea to be chestised for having broken the bridge of boats which he had hid over it, 33; he orders a second to be built, and passes the Hellespont with his army, ibid.; number of his forces, 35; Demaratus tells him freely his thoughts of this enterprise, 58; three hundred Spartans dispute the pass of Thermopylae with Xerxes, 45; that prince in his rage causes the dead body of Leonidas to be affixed to a gibbet. 46: he takes and burns Athens, 53: he is defeated at Salamis, 56; he leaves Mardonius in Greece, and returns precipitately into Asia. 58; violent passion of Xerxes for the wife of his brother Masistus, and afterwards for Artainta that princess's daughter, 77; he causes Masistus to be put to death, 79; he gives himself up to luxury and voluptuousness, 97; he is killed by Artabanus, captain of his guards, 98; character of Xerxes, 99.

Xerxes IL son of Artaxerxes Mnemon, ascends the throne of Persia, iii. 211; he is assessinated by his brother Sogdianus, ibid.

Xiphares, son of Mithridates, is killed by his father, viii. 128, Xyehus, who had been at Rome with Apelles and Philocles, in quality of secretary to their embassy, is seized and carried before Philip, vii. 84; he discovers the whole plot of Perseus against Demetrius, ibid.

 \mathbf{Y}

YAZDAW, the good deity of the Persians, ii. 237. Year, solar, when first used, i. 161.

 \mathbf{Z}

ZABRIEL. Arabian prince, betrays Alexander Bala, vii. 267; he delivers up Antiochus, son of Bala, to Tryphon, 269.

Zaleucus, legislator of the Locrians, iii. 172; wiedom of his laws, ibid.

Zancie, city of Sicily, iii. 234 .- See Messene.

as, i[.]. 163.

Zebina.—See Alexander Zebina.

Zenis, Dardanian, governor of Æolia under Pharnabazus, iv. 16. Zenodotus, librarian of Ptolemy Soter at Alexandria, vi. 124.

Zerah, king of Ethiopia and Egypt, makes war with Asa, king of Judah, and is defeated, i. 184.

Zeug tae, third class of the citizens of Athens, iv. 128.

Zoippus, Hiero's son-in-law. His great influence with Hieronymus, vin. 37; he goes ambassador to Egypt, and stays there in voluntary banishment, 43.

Zopyrus, Persian lord, mutilates himself for the service of Darius, ii. 334; he makes that prince master of Babylon, 335; reward given by Darius for so great a service, ibid.

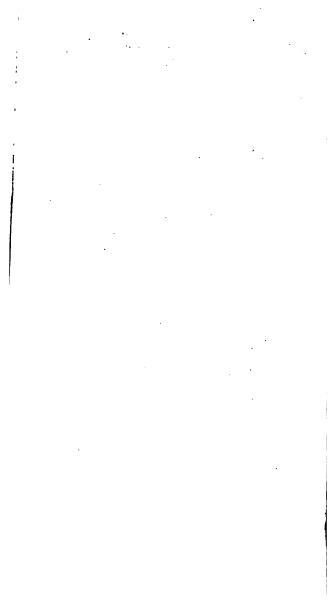
Zopyrus, slave of Pericles, and governor of Alcibiades, iii. 225. Zoroaster, founder of the sect of the Magi amongst the Persians,

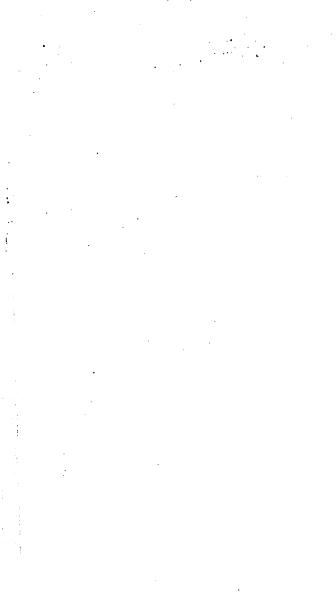
Zoroaster, another chief and reformer of the same sect, ii. 237.

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